$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { HINDUSTANI } \\
\text { STUMBLING-BLOCKS }
\end{gathered}
$$

LIEUT.-COL. D. C. PHILLOTT

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## HINDUSTANI STUMBLING-BLOCKS



## HINDUSTANI

## STUMBLING-BLOCKS

## BEING

# DIFFICULT POINTS IN THE SYNTAX AND IDIOM OF HINDUSTANI EXPLAINED AND EXEMPLIFIED 

## BY

## LIEUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT

SEGRETARY, BOARD OF EXAMINERS, CALCUTTA ; GENERAL SECRETARY, asiatic society of bengal; fellow of the calcutta university; AUTHOR of 'hindustani stepping stones', etc.

> Translator of the Nafhat-ul-Yaman and the Bāz-Nãma-yi Nāsiri ;

Editor of the Persian Translation of $H \dot{a} \bar{j} \bar{a} B \bar{a} b \bar{a}$ and of the Qawānīn-uş-Şayyād, etc., etc.


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## INTRODUCTION

The present little work is compiled from the recurring mistakes of candidates for the higher examinations at Calcutta, and from certain matters that have proved, and still prove, stumbling-blocks to the author himself. Many of the difficulties that it is hoped this book will solve, are either not in the ordinary grammars at all, or else are too briefly touched upon.

In preparing the book for the press, the author has naturally consulted all the grammars and dictionaries to which he had access, but his acknowledgments are specially due to Holroyd, Kempson, Hooper, Greaves, and Platts. His thanks are moreover due to the efficient and continuous help of Shams-ul-'Ulamà-Muhammad Yūsuf Ja'farī, Head Maulavi, Board of Examiners, Calcutta, and to Shams-ul'Ulamā Maulavi Naz̧ir Aḥmad Khān Bahādur, LL.D., who kindly revised the troublesome sections on the present and past participles. The Hindustani examples are largely taken from the letters of Ghalib, from textbooks for examinations, and from newspapers of Lahore, Delhi, and Lucknow. Further, to the courtesy of Dr. G. A. Grierson, C.I.E., the author is indebted for the following note on the derivation of the polite imperatives, received unfortunately after the book had gone to press: it should be read in conjunction with, and in substitution for, the second paragraph of XXXVIII, 1 (a) :-
" The so-called ' Polite Imperatives ' of Hindōstānī, ending in rijiyē and -iyē, are derived, through Prakrit, from the ancient Sanskrit Precative tense. The second person singular of this tense ended, in Sanskrit, in -yäs; thus, bhüyüs, ' mayst thou be!' dēyäs, 'mayst thou give!' märyās, 'mayst thou kill!'
"In late Prakrit this -yäs assumed two forms. Sometimes it became -jjahi and sometimes -i$a h i$, so that we find forms such as hojjahi (from bhūyās), 'mayst thou be!' dejjahi, ' mayst thou give!' as well as māriahi, ' mayst thou kill!'
"From the first set are descended Hindōstānī forms such as hījiye $\bar{e}$, and d $\bar{\imath} j i y e \bar{e}$, while, from the second, we have forms such as märiyē.
"Those who are interested in the subject can refer to page 330 of Pischel's Prakrit Grammar, where a number of similar forms in that language will be found for each set."

In conclusion, to quote from honest Senhor Pedro Carolino's delightful, and I would fain add immortal, work, The New Guide of the Conversation in English: "We expect then, who the little book (for the care what we wrote him and for her typographical correction) that may be worth the acceptation of studious persons, and especially of the Youth, at which we dedicate him particularly."
D. C. $P$.

## HINDUSTANI STUMBLING-BLOCKS

## I. LETTERS

1. Note that all the letters of the alphabet are consonants.
2. The letter $r$ ( $b$ ) cannot commence a word, nor is it ever doubled.
3. Note that the letter $n(\cup)$ has two distinct pronunciations ; one like the English letter n, and the other nasal as in main, 'I,' and hain, 'are': vide VIII, 6 (b).

## II. SUBSTANTIVES

1. In Delhi and Lucknow, such words as gehuin (m.), ' wheat,' chane (m.), 'gram,' jau (m.), ' barley,' ete., are plural. $\bar{A} t \bar{a}(\mathrm{~m}$.$) , 'flour,' is, however, singular.$
2. Asbāb, 'baggage,' is treated as a singular masculine; but as the Arabic plural of sabab, 'cause,' it is plural masculine.

Auqät (Ar. plural of waqt, m.), in the sense of 'times', is masculine plural, but in the sense of 'livelihood' it is feminine singular.
3. The Deity is singular, and all pronouns and verbs referring to the Deity must be singular.
4. (a) Salämat is properly a noun feminine, but it is now treated as an adjective also. In $\bar{A} p$ salämat rahiye, and Khudā āp ko salämat rakhe, a se after salāmat is, or was, understood. It should not be inserted.
(b) Salīh salamat is also treated as an adjective, and is used idiomatically for the grammatical ṣahīh sälim, which, however, is not the idiom.
(c) For diqq as a substantive and an adjective, vide XVII.
5. Loy. When used in the objective, log always requires ko, thus: 'He sent people to inquire,' chand àdmi pū̀chne
ke wāste bhej-diye, but logon ko pūchhne ke wāste bhej-diyā. Vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 6, $b$.
6. (a) Häth (se), 'by hand of.' In mere hāth (se) or mere häthon (se) the se is better omitted.
(b) Note the following: Main ne apne naukar ke hāth (not hāthon) tumhāre pās chitthī bhejī thī, lekin-' I had sent you a letter by my servant-;' but Tumhāre hāthon (not $h a \overline{t h})$ main bahut zal̄$l$ h $\bar{u}, \bar{a}$, 'I have been disgraced on your account.'

In the first case the idea of agency is not prominent, and $h \bar{a} t h$ is practically a preposition.

## III. CASES OF NOUNS

1. Nominative. For the nominative absolute, vide VII, Relative Pronouns, 2.
2. Vocative. (a) Of the two forms of the vocative the inflected form is the better, as: $A y T \bar{a} j B \bar{\imath}-b \bar{\imath}$ ke maz $\bar{a} r$, ' oh, tomb of Tāj Bībì!' ${ }^{1}$
(b) In the simple repetition of grief, a fresh epithet is usually added to each repetition; thus the pathetic simplicity in the repetition, ' $O$ my son Absalom, my son, my son Absalom! would God I had died for thee, O Absalom, my son, my son !' (2 Sam. xviii, 33), would in idiomatic Urdu be rendered in some such way as Hāy mere bete $A b \bar{\imath}$ Shālūm, mere piyāre $A b \bar{\imath}$ Shalūm! Kāsh tere 'iwaz main martā, merī $\bar{a} n k h o n ~ k e ~ t a ̄ r e ~ A b \bar{\imath}$ Shalüm. In the Urdu Bible the translation of this passage is literal.
3. Agent case with ne.
(a) The agent case is not used with the following verbs :-

Bolnā
Chillānä
Samajhnna ${ }^{2}$
baknā
lānā
dikh $\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$ den $\bar{a}$
bhülnā sochn $\bar{a}^{2}$
sun $\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$ den $\bar{a}$

[^0]| [Säth denä '] | ma'līm denā | chal-domà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ro- | muskurā-denā | hans-denà |

tears)
Pakrā̄, ì denā
Kisì ke säth ho-lenā
(accompany ; also
to pass by)
Ro-lenā (to have done
weeping)
ho-lenā (to be finished so-lenā (to have outright; to call for done sleeping) on the way)
baj-lenā (to strike the hour)
(b) The following may or may not take ne: '

Sïkhnä ${ }^{2}$
Hārnäa ${ }^{2}$
janna ${ }^{2}$
$j i t n a^{2}$ chāhna ${ }^{3}$
(c) The following take or omit ne according to the sense :Without ne.
Qarār pānā, to be decided, Karnā, to be in the habit of, Pukā̀nā, to cry out, Pānā, be allowed,
(d) Some few authors make bolna and larnā agree with their cognate accusative, but this should not be imitated.
(e) With several nouns as subjects, ne is suffixed to the last only: Bādshāh, sardāron aur sipāhiyon, sab ne pīth dī (or dikh $\bar{a}, \bar{i}$ ), 'the king, the leaders, and the men all fled.'

If, however, the subjects are pronouns, ne is suffixed to each: Main ne aur us ne, donon ne, us ko märā.
$(f)$ If there is a noun or phrase in apposition to the subject, ne comes last, as: Ek shaliks Bahādur nàm ne kakā ki . . .; Ek buḍdhe àdmī Bahädur nām (or nāmī) ne kaha ki . . Vide Apposition.
4. Genitive. (a) Note the following significations of the genitive: Khudā kā shukr, 'thanks to God;' mere khatt kā

[^1]jawāb, 'an answer to my letter ;' pine k $\bar{a}$ pāni, 'water for drinking,' 'drinking-water ;' us $k \bar{a}$ (or us par) bharos $\bar{a}$ nahīn, 'there is no dependence on him;' rel k $\bar{a}$ safar, 'a journey by rail ;' baithne kī ijāzat, 'permission to sit, for sitting ;' bāt $k \bar{a} b a r a \bar{a}$ sachch $\bar{a} h a i$, 'he is true to his word,' or, 'he keeps his appointments ;' $\overline{a j} k \bar{\imath}$ rasad, 'to-day's rations,' 'rations for to-day ;' sone kī gharī, ' a watch made of gold,' ' a gold watch;' barī bahār k $\bar{a}$ din, 'an enjoyable day;' barī bahār kī rāt, 'an enjoyable night;' k $\bar{u}, e ~ k \bar{a} ~ p a \bar{a} n \bar{u}$, 'water from the well;' babūl k $\bar{\alpha}$ darakht, 'an acacia-tree;' Panj $\bar{a} b$ k $\bar{a}$ mulk, 'the country of the Panjab,' ' the Panjab; ' gulāb k $\bar{a} p h u \bar{u} l$, 'a rose ;' tin rupīya k $\bar{a}$ kapra $\bar{a}$, 'cloth to the value of 3 rupees.'
(b) Hisāb ki kitāb in the sense of 'a book on arithmetic' is an objective genitive, but in the sense of 'an account book' subjective. In Tumhārī muhabbat men wuh tabāh ho-gayā, 'he was ruined by his love for you,' tumhārī is an objective genitive; but in Tumhārī muhabbat ne us ko kharāb karḍālā, ' your affection for him ruined him,' it is subjective.
5. The postposition ' $k o$ '. The following remarks are to be added to those in 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 6 :-
(a) The ko of motion is idiomatically omitted, except in the Panjab, as : Wuh Lahor gayā, 'he has gone to Lahore,' but Lahor ko rawāna hū, $\bar{a}$ or Lahor rawāna hu, $\bar{a}$, 'he has started for Lahore '; Wuh shahr gayā, 'he has gone to the city,' but shahr men gayā, 'he entered the city '; Wuh Wilāyat (not ko) gayā, ' he has gone to England.'

Remark.-With pahunchna the postposition men may be used or omitted, as: Main Rangūn pahunch $\bar{a}$, 'I arrived at Rangoon,' but Rangūn men pahunch $\bar{a}$, 'I entered the city of Rangoon.'
(b) It is omitted after words used in a vague or indeterminate sense, as: Us ne khāne se hāth uthāyā, 'he stopped eating;' Jahān ke paidā karne-wāle se dil lagā,o, 'fix thy (the) heart on the world's maker.'
(c) Ko is necessary in such sentences as: Jo ko, $\imath \downarrow$ dushman
ko ḥaqir samjhe us ki miṣāl us shakhs ki hai jo thori àg ko $y u ̈ n h i \quad c h h o r-d e$, 'one who despises a weak enemy is like one who neglects $a$ little fire ' (i.e. the fire that is little).

A man with a small head and a large beard reads that these are the signs of a fool; he says to himself, Main sir ko bar $\bar{a}$ kar-nahin-saktā hün lekin . . . , 'I cannot make my (the) head large, but . . .'
(d) Tum jänte ho kis tarah murgh (or murgh ko) halāl karte hain? 'do you know how fowls are slaughtered?' In such sentences it is better to omit ko after simple verbs, but to insert it after verbs compounded of a verb and substantive, etc.

Remark.-If insān were substituted for murgh, the ko would be necessary ; vide H.S.S., Lesson 6, c (5).
(e) Ko is omitted after a cognate accusative: Hamesha ki nind soy $\bar{a}$, 'he slept the everlasting sleep.'
( $f$ ) Note the insertion and omission of $k o$ in-
Q. Pādshāh ne kis ko dekhā ?
A. Ek darvesh ko.
Q. Kaun thā jis ko pādshāh ne dekhā?
A. Darvesh.
(g) Kishmish ko (not tak) abhī bahut din bāq̄̄ hain, 'Christmas is still a long way off; there are many days yet before Christmas;' but Kishmish ke bahut din bāqī hain, 'there are many days still left of the Christmas holidays.'
(h) Vide Log, II, 5.
(i) Main ne düsre ko uske bulãne ko rullhsat kiyā, 'I dispatched the other to call him.' To avoid this uneuphonious use of $k o$ in two different senses in the same clause, it is better to write uske bulāne ke liye.
( $j$ ) If several nouns are the object of one verb, ko is added to the last only, as: Jhagron aur larā,iyon ko (or, not so good, jhagre larāa,iyon ko).
( $k$ ) When a phrase is added in apposition the $k o$ is placed at the end, as: 'I saw Zaid the Wazir's son,' main ne wazīr he bete Zaid ko dekhã.

Remark.-A similar order is observed with ne; vide III, 3 (e).
(l) If a participle is in apposition to a noun, the ko directly follows the noun, as : Main ne ek $\bar{a} d m \bar{\imath} ~ k o ~ s o y a ̄ ~ h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ dekhā, 'I saw a man ${ }^{1}$ asleep,' but Main ne ek soye $h \bar{u}, e^{2}$ $\bar{a} d m \bar{i}$ ko dekhā, 'I saw a sleeping man.'
6. (a) Men. Is men main ne barī fikr kī, 'I thought a great deal about, concerning, this;' Is bāt men (or par) kyā kahte ho? 'what have you to say on this subject?' Mantiq men, 'on Logic;' Yih tattī̄ kitne men parā ? 'how much did this pony cost?' Kan-kawwe men tāgā bāndho, 'tie the thread to the kite;' Dol men (or se) rassī bāndho or rassī men (or se) dol bändho, 'tie the rope to the bucket;' Chor-kānte kapre men (or se) lag-ga,e, ' burrs have stuck to the cloth.'
(b) Wuh ghusse men (or se) bhar-gayā, 'he was filled with anger;' Wuh nasha men (or se) chūr hai, 'he is dead drunk' (chür lit. = bruised); Merī gharī men (not se) do bajkar das minit hū,e hain, 'by my watch it is ten past 2.'
(c) Vide 7 infra.
7. (a) Se is sometimes used for ke sāth: Makkhan rotī se (or ke sāth) khātā hai, 'he eats butter with his bread;' Us ko mujh se (or mere säth) dushmanı̄ hai, 'he is at enmity with me;' Wuh bare säz o sāmān se (or ke säth) āyā, 'he came with great pomp.' You could not, however, say Wuh us se $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$, 'he came with him.'
(b) Main duak se a ya $\bar{a}$ hün is modern and borrowed from the English, for the old Urdu dāk par āyā hün.
(c) Yih is se mushābih hai, 'this resembles that,' and Donon men mushäbahat hai, 'there is a resemblance between the two,' are correct. By a confusion of thought, however, Is se aur us se kyā mushäbahat hai? is incorrectly said for Is men aur us men kyā mushābahat hai?
${ }^{1}$ But main ne ek sher (without ko) soyā hū, $\bar{a}$ dekha; vide H.S.S., Lesson 6.
${ }^{2}$ Or sote hū,e.
(d) For se or ko after kahnū and püchhnā, vide XX and XXX .
(e) $S e$ is generally used with causals.
(f) For omission of se after salāmat and häth, vide II, 4, 6.
(g) Men se and men $k \bar{u}=$ 'out of ', 'a portion of ', as: Un qaidiyon men se (or men ke) do rihä kar-diye ga,e, 'two of those prisoners were released;' Un quaidiyon men se (or men k $\bar{a}$ ) ek main thā ; but Sab barādaron men (not men se) main (sab se) chhoṭā hün, 'I am the youngest of (amongst) the brothers.'

For two postpositions following the same substantive, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 30, c.
8. (a) Par is connected with upar. It has many significations, such as superiority, incumbency, debt, duty, etc. Example: Main is chīz ko us par tarjīh detā hün, 'I prefer this to that.'
(b) 'Because of,' ' for.' Kis qussìr par, 'for what fault?' Wuh chori karne par jawāb pā-gayā, 'he was dismissed for theft.'
(c) 'According to.' Munāsib țaur par, 'in, or after, a proper manner;' Mere ma'muil par, 'according to my custom.'
(d) 'Notwithstanding.' Itnī dīwānagī par bhī wuh merī bät samajh-gayā,' notwithstanding his madness he understood me;' Merī maujū̃dgī par bhī wuh apni sharārat se bāz na-āy $\bar{a}$, ' notwithstanding my presence he did not cease his mischief.'
(e) 'To,' 'for,' and 'at'. Mujh bechāre par jo guzrā, 'what happened to unfortunate me;' Mere jäne par rāz̄̄ hū, a, 'he consented to my going;' Yih aur kisì (or kisi aur) par na-khulā, 'this was revealed to none;' Jis chizz par terā $j \bar{\imath}$ chale so khä, 'eat whatever you like ;' Ko,ī ck kos par, 'at the distance of about a kos.'
(f) The $\operatorname{par}$ (like men) is often idiomatically omitted, as : Wuh daryā ke kināre gayā, 'he has gone to the river,' but Daryä ke kinare par gayā, 'he went to the edge of the water;' Düsre din (par), 'on the second day.'
9. Tak is not always a postposition; vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 30, $d$.

## IV. NUMERALS

1. (a) After donon, 'both;' chāron, 'all four,' etc., a plural noun is ordinarily to be preferred to the singular, as donon daralkhton men, chāron mulkon men; but the singular may be used.
(b) If, however, some special number is always associated with a particular noun, the singular is preferred, as : Säthon iqlim men, 'in the seven continents of the world.' In panchon hawāss, 'the five senses,' hawāss is the Arabic plural; this word, however, is in Urdu often treated as a singular. Chäron 'unsar (or arba'a 'anāsir), 'the four elements.'
(c) $E k$ is often used for the indefinite article ' $a$ '. It is, however, often emphatic, as : Wuh chor hai, 'he is a thief,' but Wuh ek chor hai, 'he is one thief,' i.e. 'he is a regular thief '; Choron men se hai, 'he is a thief,' i.e. 'belongs to the class of thieves', but Choron men se ek wuh hai, 'he too is one of the thieves (don't make any mistake about the matter).'

## V. ADJECTIVES

## 'Enough' and 'Too Much '

1. 'Enough' can be rendered by bahut, kāfí, or bas, as: Itn̄̄ sharāb bahut (or kā̃i or bas) hai.
2. 'Too much' is expressed by bahut, ziyāda, bahut ziyāda, or by hājat se ziyäda, ' more than the requirements:' Yih jūtā mere pāan se (bahut) barā hai, 'these shoes are too big for me.'

Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 2, a.
3. For salämat and sahīhl salāmat, vide II, 4.

## VI. PRONOUNS

Personal, Demonstrative, Indefinite, and Possessive

1. Personal. (a) In Delbi and Lucknow, and in Behar, the 1st person plural pronoun ham, 'we' or ' $I$ ', is both in
literary and spoken Urdu always masculine. Hindu ladies of Benares also use ham as masculine.

The following examples, in which a woman is the speaker, are from the 'Diwān-i Jān SSūhib' of Lucknow ; the poem is written in the language of the zanana :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { الى دورانه }{ }^{1} \text { (a) الد خا } \\
& \text { إ •سردورٌ }
\end{aligned}
$$

' O Friend! with difficulty I got out of the Palace last night; I am not, while alive, to be "sat upon" by men; Yes, sister, I would say this even to Mr. Death-Angel.'
'Ah! when I've disgraced my name for your sake
Do you tell me you'll have nothing to do with me?'
For further examples vide the marsīyas of Anīs and Dabīr, of Lucknow, and the masnnavi of Mir Hasan, of Delhi ; and also the 'Surra-yi Yūsuf' in the Urdu translation of the Qurān by Shāh Rafí ud-Dīn, Shāh 'Abdu'l-Qādir, and Shamsu'l'Ulamã' Maulaví Nazīr Ahmad, all of Delhi ${ }^{4}$; the first two are old and the last modern. The Urdu grammarian Mirzā Niṣār 'Alī Beg, not an acknowledged authority, has made ham common gender, and so English grammarians have followed suit. In the Panjab, however, ham is feminine as well as masculine.
(b) Speak of yourself as ham and address servants as tum. Address safed-posh natives, superior shopkeepers, assistant station-masters, etc., as $\bar{A} p$ followed by a plural verb.

[^2]Gentlemen of Lucknow and Delhi, however, generally speak of themselves as main even when they address servants as $t \bar{u}$.
2. Demonstrative. (a) Yih means 'he' just as much as
 must both be translated 'he is a good fellow'; but the former indicates either a person present or one near the speaker, while the latter either a person absent or one remote from the speaker.
(b) The demonstratives yih and wuh, preceding or following some interrogatives, are equivalent to a relative in English or in Hindustani, as: 'What is this dispute that is going on amongst the servants?' naukaron men yih kaisā jhagrā ho rah $\bar{a}$ hai? 'Who is that sawar who is riding along there?' wuh kaun sawār ghore par jā-rahā hai? = wuh kaun sawār hai jo ghore par jā-rahā hai?
(c) For the demonstrative before a relative pronoun vide VII, $\mathbf{3 , 4} 4$
3. Indefinite. The pronoun $k o, i$ has sometimes the meaning of kahīn, vide ' Hindustani Stepping Stones,' Lesson 4, p. 23.
4. Possessive. (a) Apnā does not, of course, always refer to the grammatical or to the logical subjects of a sentence (vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 12). Note the position of this possessive in the following, and the differences in signification: Usne apne bāp ke säth unko jangal men jäte dekh $\bar{a}$, 'he saw them going with his own father into the jungle;' Usne unko apne bāp ke sāth jangal men jāte dekhā, 'he saw them going with their own father into the jungle.'
(b) In Main ne unko apne ghar bhej-diyā, it is obvious that the possessive cannot refer to the singular subject; but Unhon ne unko apne apne ghar bhej-diya would be ambiguous, as the possessive might refer either to the subject or the object.
(c) In Yih apnī kitäb hai, 'this is my book' (or, in the Panjab and in Behar, yih meri apnī kitäb hai) the apnī is used for emphasis.
(d) Apnā should not be inserted except for emphasis: Main
ne usko hāth se mārā, 'I beat him with (my) hand,' but apne häth se märā, 'I beat him with my own hand,' i.e. 'I beat him myself, no one else did'.

Remark.-Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson $12, c$ and $f$.

## VII. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN AND ITS

## ANTECEDENT, AND THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

1. For the construction of relative sentences, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 16, $b$. The correlatives are less used in Urdu than in Hindi, but apart from this it is sometimes necessary to depart from the relative-correlative construction. There is, for instance, a considerable difference in meaning between Usne apme dushman ko mār-dālā jisko mārnā usko hargiz läzim na-th $\bar{a}=$ ' he killed his enemy, and it was not necessary for him to do this', and Jis dushman ko märnā lāzim na-thā usko usne mārḍālā = 'he killed that particular enemy whom he ought not to have killed '. Sometimes the latter construction is adopted for reasons of euphony only; thus, Jab tak jo log ki kāfir hon is mulk se chale na$j \bar{u}, e n$ is less euphonious than Jab tak wuh log jo kāfir hain-.
2. When, in English, a noun in any case is the antecedent of a long and explanatory relative clause, it is, in Urdu, placed by itself at the commencement of the sentence as a nominative absolute, without any verb; but after the verb in the relative clause, its place is taken by a pronoun in the proper case of the antecedent, thus: 'The boy who came to you yesterday has to-day gone back to Lahore,' larkā jo kal tumhäre pās $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$ thā wuh $\bar{a} j L a ̄ h o r ~ w a \overline{p a s ~ g a y \bar{a} ; ~ ' S o m e ~ o n e ~ h a s ~ s e n t ~ f o r ~}$ that boy whom you saw at my house yesterday,' larka jisko $\bar{a} p$ ne kal mere makān men dekhā thā us ko āj kisī ne bulābhejā hai.

Note.-The nominative absolute construction, so common in Persian and Arabic, is not admissible in Urdu. Such a con-

has no authority over the boys' (lit. 'the schoolmasterthere is no wool in his hat'), is foreign to the language, except, of course, in broken colloquial.
3. When, in English, one or more relative clauses are coupled by 'and', the succeeding relatives can, in Urdu, either be expressed, or their places can be taken by demonstrative pronouns; but the latter is more idiomatic. In 'The carpenter who made your table and whose wages you withheld, has come', jis barh $\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$ ne $\bar{A} p$ kī mez ban $\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$ thī aur $\bar{A} p$ ne (uskī or jiskī) muzdū $\bar{\imath} \bar{\imath}$ nahīn di thī wuh is waqt $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$, the $u s k i \bar{\imath}$ or $j i s k i \bar{\imath}$ may optionally be omitted, as the sentence is short and the omission causes no ambiguity; but in "The birdcatchers whom you sent to the jungle and who caught and brought you the bulbuls, want their recompense', jin mīr-shikāron ko $\bar{A} p$ ne jangal men bhejā thā aur wuh (or, not so good, jo) bulbul phasā-kar lā,e the wuh in'ām chāhtē hain, if the wuh (or $j o$ ) were omitted, $\bar{A} p$ would naturally be taken as the subject of the second clause as well as of the first.
4. For the sake of emphasis, the antecedent of a relative is often qualified by ais $\bar{a}$, or, less commonly, by wuh, as Mujh ko ek-aisā (or wuh) kāghaz chāhiye jis par kuchh likhā $h \bar{u}, \bar{a} n a-h o$, 'I want paper that has not been written on;' in this sentence the ais $\bar{a}$ (or wuh) could be omitted, but it is better inserted; but in Wuh (or aisā) kām karo jis se sānp bhī mare aur lāthī bhī na-țute (proverb), 'act so that the snake may be killed, but the lāthī be not broken,' either wuh or aisā must be inserted. Similarly, in 'The man whom you summoned has come', wuh $\bar{a} d m \bar{\imath}$ jisko $\bar{A} p$ ne bulāya $\bar{a}$ tha $h \bar{a} z i r h a i$, the wuh cannot be omitted, as the reference is to 'that particular man'; the omission of wuh in such cases is a usual mistake amongst Europeans.
5. The relative pronoun in English is sometimes a source of ambiguity, as it is not always clear whether the writer uses the pronoun restrictively or conjunctively. Abbott in 'How to Write clearly' gives the following example: 'There was
a public-house next door, which was a great nuisance.' As 'which ' is here preceded by a comma, it is conjunctive, and means 'and this fact'. Omit the comma (also, better still, substitute 'that' for 'which') and the meaning is 'that particular public-house was a great nuisance'. The Urdu, Mere makän ke baghal men ek sharāb-khäna hai jo ek taklīfdih chiz hai, is ambiguous, as the relative jo may be either conjunctive or restrictive. Substitute for jo either aur wuh sharäb-lihana or else aur us kā honā, and the ambiguity disappears.

In Wuh das kos do ghante ke 'arse men paidal gayā jo ta'ajjub kī bāt thī, 'he travelled 10 kos in the space of two hours, which was an extraordinary thing,' the relative is simply awkward; either substitute aur yih for the relative, or, better still, recast the sentence and write yih ta'ajjub $k \bar{\imath}$ bāt thī ki wuh-.
6. Note the ambiguity in the following: Main to yahān ke rahne-wälon se nahīn hīn jaisā ki tum taşawwur karte ho. This may either mean ' you think $I$ am one of the residents' or ' you think I am not'; but transfer the words nahin hün to the end of the sentence and the meaning is 'I am not one of the residents of this place as you think $I \mathrm{am}$ '.
7. To avoid ambiguity it is sometimes necessary to repeat the antecedent in a new form. 'He said he would not even hear me, which I confess I had expected.' This may either mean 'I had expected he would hear me' or 'I had expected he would not hear me'. For 'which' write 'a refusal that' or ' a favour that', according to the sense.

Us ne kahā ki main tumhârī bāt na-sunïngā aur mujh ko us se isi bāt ki tawaqqu' thī is ambiguous; but write lekin mujhe tawaqqu' thi ki wuh sunegā or lekin mujhe tawaqqu ${ }^{6}$ bhĩ yihī thi ki wuh na-sunegā, and the ambiguity is removed.
8. When the antecedent to a relative is indefinite, the relative is usually followed by the Aorist or by a Doubtful Tense, as: 'Is there anyone here that knows Turki ?' yahān
$k o, \bar{\imath}$ hai jo Turkī jantā ho?; 'There was no one there who could understand English,' wāhan ko, $\bar{\imath}$ aisā shalkls na-thā jo Angrezī samajh-sake, but here, however, the Imperfect samajhsakt $\bar{a}[t h \bar{a}]$ would be better. In Wuh us uint ki t. tarah daura $\bar{a}$ phirtā hai jisko muhār na-ho, 'he wanders hither and thither like a camel without a nose-string,' ho, and not hai, is used because no one particular camel is intended.
9. For the relative as both subject and object in the same sentence, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 27, j.

## VIII. CONJUNCTIONS, ADVERBS, AND ADVERBIAL PHRASES AND PARTICLES

1. The following idiomatic use of $k i$ was omitted from 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 26, e: Tum kluud wahān kyūn nahīn jāte ki (or jo) mujh ko wahān jāne kahte ho? 'why don't you go yourself instead of sending me?'
2. 'While' should sometimes be rendered by $y$ inn to, as: 'While all women are beautiful those of Kashmir are peculiarly so,' yūn to tamām hī 'auraten khūb-ṣürat hoti hain ${ }^{1}$ lekin khāss-kar Kashmīr kī 'auraten to nihāyat hī hasin hoti hain. ${ }^{1}$
3. (a) Note the 'aur of concomitance' in the following: Faqat. yih chār din hain; in ke ba'd ham honge aur qabr, 'there are only these few days of life; then I, and the grave.'
(b) Aur sometimes = 'but': Agar tum imtiḥan 'pās' ho$j \bar{a}, o g e ~ t o ~ t u m h e n ~ i n ~ ' a ̄ m ~ m i l e g a ̄ ~ a u r ~ a g a r ~ ' f e l ' ~ h o-j \bar{a}, o g e ~ t o ~ s a z \bar{a}$ p $\bar{a}$, oge, 'if you pass your examination you'll be rewarded, but if you fail you'll be punished.'
4. In such phrases as 'I do not know if-', 'I should not wonder if-', agar cannot be used: 'Ajab kyā hai ki fareb diyā ho tāki tujh' se apnā k $\bar{a} m$ nikāle, 'I should not wonder if he has deceived you ${ }^{2}$ in order to gain his object through you.' ${ }^{2}$

[^3]5. (a) Chähe, kyā, khwwāh repeated = 'either (or whether) or'. Chäho has also the same meaning, but can be used only when the subject is the 2nd person plural, as: Main nahin kahtā, raho chāho ja,o, 'I say nothing, remain or go as you please;' Chäho raho chäho jā,o, 'either stay or go, as you please.' Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 16, $e$ and $f$.
(b) Chāhe-chähe is alternative; ky $\bar{a}-k y \bar{a}$ is inclusive: Kyā amir kyä gharib sab uski maut par rote hain, 'whether rich or poor, all lament his death ;' to substitute chāhe for $k y \bar{a}$ in this sentence would be incorrect and vulgar ; but Chāhe Hindü ho chāhe Musalmän main us se muläqät nahīn karüngā, ' whether he be Hindu or Muslim, I won't meet him.'

Note.-For ' neither-nor' vide Negatives, ' Hindustani Stepping Stones,' Lesson 16, $d$.
6. (a) Jahān sometimes means 'when', as: Jahān us ne mujhe dekhā jān chhor-kar bhägā, 'when he saw me he fled in haste;' Jahān tum bahut baras $z \bar{a}, i^{‘}$ kar-chuke ho chand din aur sahi, ' when you have wasted so many years already, a few days more won't signify ;' Jahän ek hälat sālhā-sāl tak rahī (go wuh hālat kaisi hī 'umda aur pasandìda kyün ha-ho) khhicuāh ma-khhwāh àdmĩ us se uktā-jātā hai, 'when one state continues without change for years (no matter how pleasant that state) a man gets tired of it.'
(b) Jahän, 'where,' and jahān, 'the world.' Though spelt alike, these two words differ in pronunciation : jahān, 'where,' has a nasal $n$, while jahän, 'the world,' has not. All the Hindi adverbs, kahän, yahān, wahān, tahān, have a nün-i ghunna or nasal $n$.
7. Note the use of kahän in $A b$ hayāt 'umr barhātā hai lekin itnä shïrin kahản hogä?
8. Kahin not only means 'I fear lest' (vide Lesson 16, a) but 'never', etc., as: Kahin yih tumhäre lihiyāl men na-āwe ki main us par 'äshiq hīn, 'do not for a moment suppose that I am in love with her;' Kahin dīwäli ki ta'til tak
naubat na-pahunch-j $\bar{a}, e$, 'I fear lest the matter be prolonged till the Diwali holidays.'
9. Kabhī, 'ever,' and kabhī nahīn or hargiz nahīn, 'never.' Hargiz, however, cannot in Urdu be used for 'ever'.
10. For jab tak, 'until,' vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lessons 18, $b$, and 31.
11. Nahin to and 'otherwise '. Though 'otherwise' is to be translated by nahin to H., or warna P., still these latter words cannot always be translated by 'otherwise'. $\bar{A} p h \bar{\imath}$ hain jo wa'don ko hamesha pūrā karte hain, warna āj kal wa'don $k \bar{i}$ kaun parwā kārtā hai? 'you alone keep your promises; for in these days, who cares for promises?': here warna signifies 'were I to say otherwise, then tell me who . . .' Agar $\bar{a} p$ kā $q a t \bar{\imath} \bar{\imath} h u k m$ hai to main karūngā warna main ma'zür hün, ' if it is your strict order I'll do it, but to say the truth I am to be excused :' warna here = warna main is kām ko nahin kartā is liye ki main ma'z $\bar{u} \bar{r}$ hūn,' or some such equivalent phrase. Jo kuchh musībat insān ko pahunchtī hai wuh us ke gunāhon ke sabab se pahunchtī hai, warna Khudā kisī par ẓ্ulm nahīn kart $\bar{a}=$ ' misfortunes that befall a man are due to his sins, for indeed God oppresses none': warna here signifies 'if you say otherwise, then I say that . . .'

Wa-illa is old Urdu and has the same signification. In poetry especially, warna, etc., is a great stumbling-block.
12. Bāre and älhir ko, 'at last.' Though bāre and aulhir ko both mean 'at last', the former has a restricted use, the latter a general: bāre can be used only when the clause expresses something favourable. 'At last my brother died' is älchir ko (not bāre) merā bhā, $\bar{i}$ mar-gayā ; but 'At last my brother recovered' could be bāre, or ākhir, ko, merā bhā, $\bar{\imath}$ bīmārı̄ se achchhā ho-gayā. Similarly, bāre (or älhhir ko) wuh rāzi $h \bar{u}, a$, 'at last he consented.'
18. Correlatives: 'as ;' 'the more - the less,' etc.; ' hardly,' 'scarcely,' 'almost; ' 'to be about to ;' ' no matter how;' 'as soon as;' ' not only-but also;' 'rather than.'
(a) The correlatives are much less used in Urdu than in Hindi. Vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 25.
'As,' 'as by degrees,' is in Delhi jon jon (or old jyon jyon'), and in Lucknow jo jo; while jaise jaise is common to both.

The correlative for the first is ton ton (or old tyon tyon). For jo jo there is no correlative. For jaise jaise the correlative is waise waise, or in old Urdu taise taise. 'As (or the more) he was treated, the worse he became,' jyon jyon (or jaise jaise or jo jo) uskā 'iläj hotā gayā ton ton (or waise waise) uskī bimarī barhtī ga, $\bar{\imath}$; Jo jo wuh mäldār hotā gayā (no correlative) wuh ziy $\bar{a} d a$ maghrūr hu, $\bar{a}$, 'the richer he got the prouder he became.'
'Marizz-i 'ishq par rahmat Khudā ki
Marz barhtā gayā jyon jyon dawā ki.'.

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' God's pity on one sick of love, The disease got worse the more it was treated.'
(b) For 'the more . . . the more (or the less)', etc., vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 25.
(c) '-how much the more-' is expressed as follows: ' If coffee makes you drunk how much the more will wine do so?' (1) jab ${ }^{2}$ qahwa se tumhen nashā ho-jātā hai to sharāb se (or na-jāne sharäb se) kyā hāalat hotī hogi?? (2) -to sharāb $k \bar{a} h a \bar{a} l$ ma'lüm? (8) -to sharāb to sharāb hi hai? (4) -to sharäb kā kyā pūchhnä hai? (or to sharāb kā to kuchh püchhnā hī nahīn); (5) -to sharāb kā to Khudā hī hāfiz hai (or to sharäb kä hal Khudä hi ko ma'lüm hai) ; (6) -to sharāb se kyā kahnā? (7) -to sharāb kyā karegi ? (8) to sharāb kā kyā ṭhikānā?
(d) 'How much less' is expressed as follows: 'If wine does not make you drunk how much less will coffee do so ?' jab sharäb se tumhen nashā nahin hotā to 'kāfí' se kab hogā ? or 一to 'käfín' se honä ma'lūm, or 一to 'käfín' se ho-chukā ;

[^4]'I would not do this for a friend, much less for an enemy,' main doston ke liye to aisā karūn-hī-gā nahīn dushmanon ke liye kahān tak karūngā? or -dushmanon ke liye karnā ma'lūm, or -dushman ko kaun pūchhtā hai?
(e) '- much less, to say nothing of, let alone -.' 'I have never even heard the name of the place, much less seen it, to say nothing of never having seen it,' main ne us jagah k̄̄ nām bhī nahīn sunā hai dekhne k $\bar{a} k y \bar{a} z i k r$, or dekhnā to ma'lüm, or dekhnā to dar kinār hai = us jagah kā dekhnā dar kinār main ne nām bhī nahin sunā.

Note.-For $b h \bar{\imath}$ in correlative sentences, vide 14.
( $f$ ) 'Hardly,' 'scarcely,' etc. Vide also H.S.S., Lesson 25. I had barely set foot outside Main ne kamre se bāhar qadam the room when-

He could scarcely have proceeded half a mile when he was attacked by a robber.
(g) 'Nearly,' ' almost: 'I have nearly finished.

He nearly fell off his horse; (lit. 'it was near that he should fall off his horse '). It is nearly twelve.
na-rakhä th $\bar{a}$ ki chhat gir$g a, \bar{\imath}$ (or gir-parī); or main kamre se qadam bāhar rakhne na-p $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$ th $\bar{a}$ ki-.
Wuh $\bar{a} d h \bar{a}$ mil na-gay $\bar{a}$ hog $\bar{a}$ ki ek ḍākū ne us par hamla kiyā; or wuh shāyad hī ek $m \bar{l} l$ gay $\bar{a} h o g a \bar{a} k i-$.

Mere kām men kuchh thora $s \bar{a}$ bāqī hai; or mujhe kuchh thorā $s \bar{a} k a \bar{m}$ bāq̄ 乞 hai.
Wuh ghore par se girte girte bach-gayā ; or qarīb thā (ki) ghore par se gir-jā,e.
Thorī der men bārah bajenge; or bārah bajne men thorī der bāqı̄ hai; or bārah abhī bajenge; or bārah bajne chāhte hain; or bārah bajchale. ${ }^{1}$

[^5](h) 'To be about to-.' Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lessons 25 and 29, a, and XLII, 7, and XLV, 4.
When the old king was about Jab bādshäh marne-lagā-. to die he-
I was just going to get into Main sawār hone hī ko thā ki the train when it started. rel chal-pari.
I was on the point of falling when he saved me.

Main girne hī ko thā ki us ne mujhe sanbhāl-liyā.
(i) For 'no matter how', 'as soon as ', 'no sooner than ', ' not only-but also', and 'rather than', vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 25, $b, h, j$, and $k$, and XLVII, 3.
14. Niz and $b h \bar{\imath}$, 'also.' (a) Bhi must immediately follow the word it refers to ; unlike $n \bar{\imath} z$, it cannot commence a clause.
(b) $B h \bar{\imath}$ is often required where in English 'also' cannot be used, as : Apne māl se kuchh faqīron ko bhi khairāt karo, 'give the poor (also) some of the property you possess ; ' here bhī signifies that 'as you possess some let the poor also possess some'. Us ke sāth mujhe bhi bhej-do is either 'send me with him'; or if anyone else were being sent, 'send me also with him.'
$B h \bar{i}$ is often used where in English 'also ', though omitted, might be inserted, as: Āte ke sāth ghun bhī pistā hai (proverb), 'the weevil is ground with the grain.'
(c) It is used in boastful or pretentious phrases, as: Wuh dil men khiiyāl kartā hai ki main bhì kuchh hīn, 'he fancies himself somebody;' Tum bhī ele 'ajīb àdmi ho, 'you're a wonderful person' (generally satirically); Dunyä bhī ek 'ajīb jagah hai, 'this world is a wonderful place.' There is no idea of 'also' in any of these phrases.
(d) It is also idiomatic to add it in correlative sentences, though it can be omitted: Wuh jahān jātā hai wahān uskā $k u t t \bar{a}(b h \bar{u}) j \bar{a} t a \bar{a} h a i$, 'where he goes, there goes his dog also ;' Jo tum karoge main (bhi) karüngā.
(e) With a simple verb, bhi may close a sentence, as: Main ne us kamān ko şirf jhukāyā hī nahīn balkī toràa bhī, 'I did not merely bend the bow, I broke it.'
$(f)$ If, however, the verb be a compound (either of two verbs or of a simple verb with a substantive, or adjective, etc.) the $b h \bar{\imath}$ must be inserted between the compounds; thus, if in the previous example tor- $d \bar{a} l \bar{a}$ be substituted for tor $\bar{a}$, the sentence must run -balki tor bhī dāalā. Similarly, -balki 'arẓ bhī kiyā, and not 'arz kiyā bhī.

Note.-The particle $h \bar{\imath}$ (q.v.) is also governed by similar rules.
(g) In correlatives or in conditional sentences bhī refers to the emphatic word in the clause, as : Agar tum mere hān ā,oge to main tumhāre hān bhī $\bar{a}, \bar{u} n g \bar{a}$, , ' if you'll come to see me, I'll go to see you;' Agar tum mere hān $\bar{a}$,oge to main $b \bar{h} \bar{\imath}$ tumhāre hān $\bar{a}, \bar{u} n g \bar{a}$, , if $y$ ou will come to see me, I'll go to see you.'
(h) For 'he said also' English people usually say us ne $b h \bar{\imath} k a h \bar{a}$; this should be us ne yih bhī$k a h \bar{a}$, for the former means 'he too, said '.
15. Hi. (a) The emphatic particle $h \bar{i}$ can be added for emphasis to any part of speech; it is also equivalent to italics in English or to underlining. For numerous examples of its force vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 25, m. Further examples are: Main ne kisī ko gāte sunā. Main hī gāt $\bar{a} t h \bar{a}$, ' I heard some one singing. Yes, it was I that was singing ;' Utnā $h \bar{\imath}(=u s i ̄ q a d a r)$, 'just as much,' ' exactly as much ;' Main is bāt ko bhūl hi gayā thā, 'I quite forgot it;' Is zillat kī zindagī se to, tumhārā marnā hī achchhā thā, ' why, dying would be preferable to living in such misery.'
(b) Hī is sometimes used for bhī, 'even': Wuh aisā buzurg shakhs hai ki agar tumhen uskī hawa $h \bar{\imath}$ (or $b h \bar{\imath}$ ) lag-jā,e to

[^6]tum àdmi ban-jā,o (or $j \bar{a}, o g e$ ), 'so saint-like is he that even his passing contact would make you good.'
(c) Hī also expresses contempt: Yih kitāb bhī kyā chīz hai, ' what sort of a thing is this book?' (surprise or admiration) ; but Yih kitāb chīz hī kyã hai, ' what worth has this wretched book got?'
(d) When $h \bar{i}$ emphasizes a future, it should (unlike $b h \bar{i}$ ) be inserted before the future suffix, as : Main is käm ko karūnhígā nahin ${ }^{1}$ (but karüngā bhī nahin), 'I will never do this.'
(e) In compound verbs $h \bar{\imath}$ follows the rule of $b h \bar{\imath}$, thus: Bhūl hī gayā, 'I forgot it altogether;' -lekin main ne 'arẓ hī kiyā, '-but I insisted on making a petition,' 'I did make a petition;' Main ne bāhir hī wālon ko dekhā, 'I saw only those outside.'
(f) Note the position of the emphatic particle $h \bar{\imath}$ in the following: Yih kām mujh se ho-hī-gā nahīn, 'this business can in no way be done by me;' here $h \bar{\imath}$ qualifies the verb and could occur in no other position in the sentence. Tum jānte hī the ki wuh nahīn $\bar{a}, e g \bar{a}$, ' you certainly knew that he would not come.'
16. The particle 'to'. (a) To means 'certainly', 'I admit', 'of course', 'as for', 'just'; and like bhī it follows the word it refers to. Examples-
(1) He, I admit, obeys me, Wuh to merā hakm mäntä hai, but the other servants don't.
(2) He obeys me, of course, but not my brother.
(3) He obeys me, of course, butlekin düsre naukar nahīn mänte.
Wuh merā hukm to mäntā hai, lekin mere bhā, $\bar{\imath}$ kā $\quad$ hukm nahīn māntā.
Wuh merā hukm mäntā to ${ }^{2}$ hai, lekin-

[^7](b) If the particle would ordinarily occur as the last word of the clause, the word sahi must be added; thus the last sentence could be rendered, Wuh merā hukm mäntā hai to sahī, lekin-.
(c) To also expresses contrast, as: Qaidiyon men das to mard hain aur $b \bar{a} q \bar{\imath}$ 'auraten, ' of the prisoners, ten are men, the rest women;' Din koo to garmī partī hai aur rāt ko sardī, 'by day it is hot, but at night cool ;' Main to jātā hūn tum chāho $j \bar{a}, o$ chaho $n a-j \bar{a}, o$, 'as for me, I'm going; you may go or not, as you please.'
(d) To also indicates an admitted fact, as: Fulãn shakhs mujh se jhüṭh bolā. Wuh jhūtha to hai, 'so-and-so lied to me, he is known to be a liar' ('he is an admitted liar,' or ' of course he is a liar ').
(e) With the imperative, to is equivalent to the English adverbial 'just', as : Is dawā ko khā to lo, phir dekhnā ki iskāa kyā assar hotā hai, ' just take this medicine and then see its effects;' Yih zahr nahīn hai; khā to lo, 'this is not poison; just swallow it and see.'
$(f)$ Interrogatively, to expresses a modicum of doubt, as: $\bar{A} p$ achchhe to hain? (= Ap achchhe hain na ?), 'you are well, aren't you?' (i.e. 'I hope you are well').
(g) Similarly, to nahin used interrogatively also expresses some doubt, but is equivalent to 'I hope you're not?' or to mabädū, as: $\bar{A} p$ bimār to nahīn hain, 'you're not ill, I hope?' It would be incorrect to say $\bar{A} p$ achchhe to nahin hain, for that would imply that the speaker hoped he wasn't well.
(h) Note the following idioms:-

Not to speak of you, very learned men even can't answer this.
Setting aside wine, why, he doesn't even smoke.

Tum to tum, bare bare ${ }^{〔}$ àlim bhī is sawāl kā jawāb de nahīn sakte (or nahin de-sakte). Sharāb to sharāb, wuh tam. bākū tak nahīn pītā.
17. The Negative. (a) The prohibitive mat is used only
with the Imperative, in all its forms; it either precedes or follows the verb, as mat ja,iye, j $\bar{a}, o$ mat, etc., but it generally precedes it. Mat is only used in commands, and the modern tendency is not to use it at all.
(b) $N a$ and nahin can be substituted for mat with the Imperatives, and $n a$ with the Infinitive when it is used as a future (or politely present) Imperative ; but nahin must follow the verb while $n a$ must precede it, as $n a-j \bar{a}, o$ or $j \bar{a}, o$ nahīn, na-jànā or jānā nahīn.
(c) Nahin alone, is used with the Present Tense, and with the Infinitive employed as in 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 15, $d$ (Ghorà us ko khinch nahin sakne kā); or when the substantive verb is understood, as, Wuh yih käm kabhī nahīh kartā (hai or thā̆) ; or for the adverbial 'no'.
(d) In other tenses either na or nahin is used, but with the Past Conditional and the Aorist $n a$ is preferred. Na-kartā is Past Conditional, but nahin kartā is Present Indicative.
(e) Note too the difference in signification of the following: Main us ko bulātā thā magar wuh na-ātā thā, 'I used to ask him to come and see me, but he would never come;' but wuh nahin ātā thā, 'he used not to come.'
(f) After verbs of doubt and fear $n a$ is preferred to nahīn, as : Main ḍartā hün ki wuh na- (or nahīn) àwegā.
(g) Note the position of the negative in: Wuh mar nahin gayā or nahīn marā, but not nahīn mar-gayā. Ko,ī tadbīr na-ban-pari or ban-na-pari.
(h) Nahin only, and not na, can occur as a final word in a negative affirmative sentence, as: Jã,üngà nahin (not na), ' I won't go.'
(i) $N a$ at the end of a sentence is interrogative, as: Jã,oge $n a$, ' you will go, won't you?' In such a sentence the voice is elevated at the end, and therefore $n a$ is, by many natives, in such cases, written $n \bar{a}$.
'Neither . . . nor' is expressed by na to . . . aur na; or by $n a \ldots n a$; or if there are three 'alternatives' by
na to . . . na . . . aur na . . . The first na can idiomatically be omitted in every case.

## IX. VERBS

1. (a) Sometimes, though a verb has more than one form, only one is in use ; thus, chaur $\bar{a} k$., 'to widen,' is in common use, but chaurā$n \bar{a}$ is never used. Mukkī mārnā, 'to strike with the fist,' is correct, but mukhiyān $\bar{a}$ is colloquial only.
(b) After kings and governors, causal verbs are used, except when the verb is 'to confiscate'; for obvious reasons say, Badshāh ne māl zabtıt kar-liyā (and not karwāyā).
(c) A few simple verbs are formed from Persian and Arabic roots; thus, from Arabic, qabūllnā, 'to accept;' badalnā, 'to change;' from Persian, kharīdnā, 'to buy;' balihshnā, 'to forgive; ' farmān $\bar{a}$, ' to order,' etc.
(d) For the agent case ne before certain verbs, vide Lesson III, 3.
2. Compound Verbs and Negatives. To the general rule that compounds of two verbs cannot be used in the negative (vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 11, $l$ ), there are four exceptions. In conditional sentences, before balki, and after jab tak, and in interrogative clauses, such compounds may be made negative: (1) Agar tum is dūdh ko is waqt na-p $\bar{i}-j \bar{a}$,oge to bigar $j \bar{a}$, ,eg $\bar{a}$, 'if you don't drink up the milk now it will go bad ;' but it would be incorrect to say in a simple sentence, Wuh dūdh nahin $p \bar{p}-j \bar{a}, e g \bar{a}$ or $p \bar{i}-n a-j \bar{a}, e g \bar{a}$. (2) Main tumhārī kitāb khā-na-jā,ūngā balki ek nazar dekh-kar de-düngā, 'I won't eat your book, I'll merely glance at it and return it to you.' (3) Jab tak ki main wäpas na- $\bar{a}-j \bar{a}, \bar{u} n g \bar{a}$ tum yahān thahro, 'stay here till I return' (i.e. 'as long as I do not come back, stay here '); Jab tak ki main is kām ko kar na-dālūngā mujhe chain $n a-\bar{a}$, ega, ' until I do this I shan't rest.' (4) Ky $\bar{a}$ tum mujhe $m \bar{a} r$ to na-baithoge, 'what, are you going to beat me?-you look as if you were.'

The above rule holds good even if the conditional or the enhansive clause is understood, as: Tum yih kitāb mujhe kyün na-dete? main use khā-na-jā,ūngā; in this sentence either a conditional clause (' I won't eat it, if you lend it to me') or an enhansive clause (' -rather I will return it') is understood.
3. For the reason of such forms as mārā-chāhtā hai, jāy $\bar{a}$ chähtā hai, etc., vide 'Essays on Bihārī Declension and Conjugation', by Dr. G. A. Grierson, C.I.E., Journ. Beng. As. Soc., 1883, vol. lii, pt. i, p. 156.
4. For verbs compounded with participles, vide XLI, 10, 11, and XLIX.

## X. $\bar{A} N \bar{A}, J \bar{A} N \bar{A}$, AND CHALN $\bar{A}$

1. (a) If a correspondent, say in Calcutta, were writing to some one, say in Lahore, to ask him when he was going to a certain place, he would, if the place were intermediate, use $\bar{a} n \bar{a}$, but if beyond, jānā, as : $\bar{A} p$ kab Jallandhar $\bar{a}$,enge? but $k a b$ Peshäwar jä,enge? In writing to remote countries this rule is not observed. Thus, if writing to a friend in England, the idiom would be, $\bar{A} p k a b$ Ițaliya jā,enge, not $\bar{a}$, enge, ' when will you go to Italy?'
(b) Main ek dost se milne gayā thā magar tifin se pahle ghar wäpas auyä, 'I went to see a friend, but I got home again before lunch' (said by one not at home) ; $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$ is here used because gay $\bar{a}$ is used in the previous clause.
(c) For the use of chalnā in the sense of 'to begin', vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 19, b (2) : Tāqat âtī chalī hai, 'his strength has begun to return.'
(d) Kidhar jäte ho (to a person on the move), or kidhar chale (to a person about to start) = ' where are you going alone?'; but Kidhar chalte ho, 'where do you want to go with me?'
(e) Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 19, $b$ (1), for chalnā.
(f) If writing to a person to say you will go to his house, use $\bar{a} n \bar{a}$, but if speaking to him use $j \bar{a} n \bar{n}$.
2. In the following, $j \bar{a} n \bar{a}$ is used for chāhn $\bar{a}$ : Yih kām hū, $\bar{a}-j \bar{a} t \bar{a}$ hai, tum ghabrāte kyün ho, 'this will soon be finished; why are you so anxious? ': hū, $\bar{a}-j \bar{a} t \bar{a} \quad h a i=h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ chāhtā hai. In this sense, however, jān $\bar{a}$ can only be used for an event which is desired.
3. For $\bar{a} \bar{a}$ in compounds, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 11, $i$.
4. For rare compounds with $j \bar{a} n \bar{a}$, vide XLIX, 1 and 4.

## XI. BAJNĀ, BAIṬHNA

1. Bajn $\bar{a}$ is 'to sound, strike' (of bugle, bell, clock) ; 'to be struck' (song, drum) ; 'to be played upon' (drums, bugle, or any musical instrument). Kitne baje hain? ' 'what o'clock?' is literally 'how many hours have struck?' English people generally think baje is a noun.
2. For baithnā, vide XLI, 10, and ' Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 11, g.

## XII. BANNĀ, BANĀNA

1. Bannā means 'to be repaired' as well as 'to be made'; but marammat honā is only 'to be repaired'. Wuh bahut bantā hai ='he gives himself great airs'. Merī us se nabaneg $\bar{\imath}$, 'he and I won't hit it off together:' bāt is understood.
2. Banān $\bar{a}$ also signifies 'to make' a person, as opposed to bigārnā, 'to mar' him.
3. Oh! tum mujhe banāte ho $=$ ' ah ! you're making a fool of me'; Mujhe jhüṭā banāte ho? 'do you make me out a liar?'
[^8]
## XIII. CHĀHNĀ, 'TO WISH, LOVE,' ETC.; CHUKNĀ, 'TO FINISH'

1. For chähnā and chähiye, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', and Lessons III, 8 (b), and XXXVIII, 1.
2. 'He ate his dinner and then finished his work' is, Us ne khänā khāyā aur uske ba'd apnā kām (pūrā) kiyā (not āpnā $k \bar{a} m$ kar-chukāa). The reason is that chuknā can only be used where the sentence is a simple one, or when in a compound sentence the action of the second verb is subsequent to the first, as: Main khānā khā-chuk $\bar{a}$, 'I have finished eating;' Wuh khānā khā-chukā, uske ba'd usne apnā kām (pūrā̄) kiyā.
3. The future of chukn $\bar{a}$ is often the equivalent of an English Perfect, vide XXXVII, 5.
4. For the Preterite used ironically for a negative Future, vide XLI, 7, Remark.

## XIV. CHHŪTNĀ AND BACHNA

1. Chhütnā, intr., and chhornā, tre, signify 'to be saved' or 'to escape', etc., but from a danger that has arrived.
2. Bachnā, intr., and bachānā, tr., are 'to escape from a threatened danger'.

## XV . $D \bar{A} L N \bar{A}$ AND $D E N \bar{A}: \operatorname{DARN\overline {A}}$

1. Note that for 'to pour' the verb dálnã is generally used. It can be used either of liquids or solids. The proper word, however, for 'to pour' is undelnā.
2. Denā. For the Present and Imperfect of denā, vide $\mathrm{XL}, 6$, and for its signification in compounds, ete., vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 11, $a-c$.
3. For rare compounds of inflected past participles with ḍālnā, denā, and lenā, vide XLIX, 1-8.
4. For ḍarnā and ḍar-lagnā, vide XLVII, 12.

## XVI. DEKHNA AND PARHNA

1. (a) As in English, dekhnā is also used of mental perception. The interjection dekho is used to warn or to lay
stress on a point to be observed, as : Dekho! bābū ke siwa aur kisī ke häth men na-denã, 'be careful to see you don't give this to anyone but the $b \bar{a} b \bar{u}$.'

Note.-To attract attention, suno or suniye ('hie!' 'look here !') is used, and not dekho.
(b) To read quietly to oneself is kitäb dekhnā̈ (though parhna $\bar{a}$ in this sense is not now absolutely wrong); but to read aloud to oneself is kitäb parhnā.
(c) For dekhiye, vide XXXVI, 10, and XXXVIII, 1.
2. For studying a lesson in preparation, parhna only is used. The primary idea of parhna is repeating aloud; thus, namāz parhnā, to say the fixed Muslim prayers, but kisī ke liye du' $\bar{a}$ māngn $\bar{a}$ (or karnā), 'to pray for some one,' ${ }^{1}$ and du'a $\bar{a}$ den $\bar{a},{ }^{2}$ ' to bless.'

## XVII. DIQQ AND DIQQ KARNA

As a substantive masculine, diqq means the chronic fever that usually precedes consumption; but as an adjective it means 'bothered'. The idiom therefore is diqq karn $\bar{a}$, 'to worry,' 'bother,' etc., and not, as English people say, diqq den $\bar{a}$ : say main rāste men bahut diqq hū, $\bar{a}$ and not mujhe bahut diqq milã.

## XVIII. HONĀ AND HO-JĀNA

1. Ho-gayā more emphatically indicates change of state than does $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$, as: Fatah 'Alī Shāh ke marne ke ba'd, uskā betā Muhammad Shāh bādshāh hū, $\bar{a}$; not ho-gaya, which would be wrong, as the succession was natural, or expected; but Bādshāh ke marne ke ba'd uskā ghulām Kāfūr bādshāh $h o-g a y \bar{a}$. In the latter sentence $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ could be substituted, but would not be so forcible.

[^9]2. For the Future and Future Perfect of this verb, vide XXXVII, 7, 8.
3. (a) For the difference between hai and hotā hai, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 1, g.
(b) For the forms hin, vide L, 1, Remark.
4. For hokar, 'although,' etc., vide XLVI, 13 (a), (b) ; for hote, vide XLVII, 15 (20).

## XIX. J $\bar{A} N N \bar{A}$ AND SAMAJHN $\bar{A}$

Jānnā means 'to know', and also 'to suppose or think'; samajhnā means 'to understand', 'to think, suppose'; but not 'to know'.

Jān-jāna and jān-len $\bar{a}=$ 'I have found out', 'arrived at'.
The conjunctive participle of both these verbs signifies ' mistaking' as well as 'knowing'; thus, main chor jān-kar (or samajhkar) us ke pichhe daurā may mean either 'knowing him to be a thief' or 'mistaking him for a thief, I ran after him'. Vide also under XXXII, Rakhnā. For kyā jāniye and na-jäniye, vide XXXVIII, 1.

## XX. KAHNA WITH SE OR KO

1. Kahnā in the sense of 'say' or 'speak' requires se; but in the sense of 'to name a thing ' or 'to order' it requires ko, as: Us ne mujhe bähir jāne ke liye (or bāhir jäne ko) $k a h \bar{a}$, 'he ordered me to go out;' Wuh mujhko chachā kahākartā hai, 'he always calls me uncle (paternal);' Us ne mujhko be-wuqüf kahä, 'he called me a fool.'
2. For kyä kahiye, vide XXXVIII, 1.
3. For the difference in signification between $b o l n \bar{a}$ and $k a h n a \bar{a}$, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 5, b, c.

## XXI. $K A R N \bar{A}$

1. (a) The verb karnà sometimes means 'to place', 'to send ', 'to bring over', etc., as in-
(1) Place him in the rear of Us ko 'lā,in' ke pichhe karo. the line.
(2) Send him with me.
(3) Turn your face that way.
(4) The pleader spoke well and brought the jury over to his side.
(5) To consent; to say 'yes'.
(6) The mother kept calling her son Hasan by name.
(7a) To applaud; to cry Shābāsh karnā (or kahnā). 'bravo!'
(7b) To call down a blessing Jai jai karna. ${ }^{2}$ on a great person.
(8) To adopt a son.
(b) Vide also XXXII.
2. For the idiomatic use of karke, vide XLVI, 12.

## XXII. LAGNA AND SHUR $\bar{U}^{‘}$ KARNA

1. The primary meaning of lagna is 'to be in contact with', 'to stick to'. To the many idiomatic meanings of this verb illustrated in Lesson 9 of 'Hindustani Stepping Stones' are to be added those of sensation and seeming-
This disgrace stuck to him Yih bad-nāmi 'umr bhar ke
all his days.
This hat does not suit you. He took what I said in ill part. This coat suits you.

It tastes bitter.
Whatever I say he takes ill.

Usko hamāre sāth karo (or kar-do).
Munh us taraf karo.
Wakil ne taqrir karke ahl-i 'jūr̄̄' ko apnī taraf karliyā. ${ }^{1}$
Hān karnā (or kahnā).
Män ne Hasan Hasan karke apne bete ko pukārā (or pukārtū rahī).

Beṭa karke pālnā.

## I feel cold.

He seems (either from his appearance or from what you say) to be your brother (also = 'he is your cousin').
He is my cousin.
But-
He is my brother.

This ointment burns, causes Yih marham bahut lagtā hai.

Jārā lagtā hai.
Yih ādmi tumhārā bhä, ì lagtā hai.

Merā bhā,i lagtā hai.
Merā bhä, $\bar{\imath}$ hai ( h haqīqī $b h \bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$ or $\operatorname{sag} \bar{a} b h \bar{a}, \bar{\imath} \quad h a i)$. a burning sensation.
2. (a) In the sense of 'to begin' lagn $\bar{a}$ differs slightly from shumú karná, the former having a wider meaning.

Shurū karnā emphasizes the commencement only of an act, as: Main ne bolnā shurū kiyā thä lekin usne mujhe rok-diyā, 'I began to speak, but he stopped me;' here the wider verb lagnā could be substituted.
(b) Lagnā also signifies 'to begin and to continue', and is consequently often idiomatically used in Urdu when 'to begin' could not be used in English, as: 'He laughed on seeing me , and said,' wuh mujhe dekh-kar hansā aur kahne lag $\bar{a}$; not shur $\bar{u}{ }^{6} k i y \bar{a}$, as the idea is that he began to say and continued to say.
3. Lagnā further means 'to begin' in the sense of 'to make ready for', as : Wuh jāne lagā thā ki bīmār ho-gayā (or parāa), ' he was just going to start when he fell sick.'
4. Lagnā, 'to undertake.' In this sense the Preterite is used with a Future sense, and the Pluperfect with a Preterite sense, but only for interrogatives expressing strong dissent, as: Main wahān kyūn jāne lagā, 'why should I go there?' Main wahān kyūn jāne lagā thā, 'why should I have gone there?
5. Lagnā after an Infinitive may supply the place of the Aorist or the Future, vide XXXVII, 6, or of the Past Conditional, vide XLIV, 3.
6. As lagnā also means 'to cohabit', Lucknow people avoid its use except in the sense of 'to begin '; thus a Lucknow gentleman would say, Yih dawā karwì ma'līm hotī hai, instead of lagt̄̄ hai.

## XXIII. THE VERB LENA

1. In addition to those significations of lenā mentioned in Lesson 11, 'Hindustani Stepping Stones,' this verb sometimes indicates 'success after effort', as: Main ne imtihān 'pās' kar-liyā (or 'without effort', kiy $\bar{a}$ ), 'I passed the examination;' Main ne usko talāsh' $k a r-l i y \bar{a}$, , I found it at last;' Jis chīz ko main talāsh kartā thē ākhir pā-liyā, 'I at last found what I was searching for.' In the last two examples kiyā and pāyā, if substituted, would have much the same signification; but Main ne apnī kitāb us se māng$\imath \bar{\imath}=\ldots$ māng-kar $\bar{\imath}$; whereas māng $\bar{\imath}$ alone would mean ' asked for'.
2. For the signification of lena in compounds, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 11, b, c.
3. For rare compounds, XLIX, 1, 2.

## XXIV. M $\bar{A} N G N \bar{A}$ AND $C H \bar{A} H N \bar{A}$

Mängnā means 'to beg', 'to ask for'; it does not mean 'to want', 'to desire', which is properly expressed by chāhnā. 'I want a horsé' is not main ek ghoria mangta $h \bar{u} n,{ }^{2}$ but -chähtā hün; but a servant might correctly say, Sāhib ek piyālā chā,e māngte hain, 'the Sāhib wants (i.e. is asking for) a cup of tea.'

Muslims of Bengal and also servants of Englishmen do say, but incorrectly, main jāne mängtā hün for main jāne chähtā hün, 'I want to go.' Avoid this vulgarism.
${ }^{1}$ Taläsh $k$., 'to search for ;' but taläsh kar-lenā, 'to find after diligent search.'
${ }^{2}$ This would mean 'I am asking for a horse to be brought', while mangätā hün would mean 'I am sending for a horse'.

## XXV. THE VERB MARNA

The past participle of marnä, 'to die,' is marā; the old form $m \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ is now used only in abuse.

## XXVI. MILNA AND MILANA

1. With $k o$, this verb indicates accidental meeting; with $s e$, intentional meeting and also joining; with men, absorption (of persons or things). Examples-
(1) A sepoy of my regiment Meri paltan kā ele sipāh $\bar{\imath}$ deserted to the enemy. dushman se $j \bar{a}$-milā.
(2) He turned himself into Wuh Angrezon men mil-gayā. an Englishman (adopted Englishmen's habits).
(8) Mix flour with water. Pānī men àtã milā,o.
2. Vide XLV, 5.

## XXVII. $P \bar{A} N \bar{A}$

Dekh-pānā and sun-pānā are colloquial for dekhne pānā and sunne pānā.
XXVIII. LAUṬTNA, LOṬNA, LUTṬNĀ, Etc.

Lautnä ( ( $ا$, لJ), 'to turn back,' 'return,' is intransitive, and lautānā (ان $ا \hat{b}, \mathrm{y})$ ), 'to send back,' 'to give back,' is transitive: but the latter is sometimes confounded with the intransitive


Lotnā ( $ا$ ), intransitive, is 'to roll', 'wallow', while lütnā ( $ل$ ( $ل$ ), transitive, is 'to loot'.

## XXIX. PARCAT IN COMPOUNDS

1. Dekh-parnā is an abbreviation of dekhne men parnā, and has the same signification as dikhā, $\bar{i}$ dena ; so, too, with sun-parna and samajh-parnā.
2. Parnā and par-jānā are sometimes idiomatically used
for hon $\bar{a}$ and ho-jān $\bar{a}$, as: Qaht-s-sāl̄$p a r \bar{u}($ or $h \bar{u}, \bar{\imath}$ ), 'there was a famine;' Uske dil men merī taraf se 'adāwat par-ga, $\bar{\imath}$ (or ho-ga, $\bar{\imath})$, 'he has taken an active dislike to me.'
3. The perfect, parā hai, sometimes means 'at your disposal', as: Khelne ke liye sārā maidān paṛa hai, ' you have the whole maidān at your disposal to play in ' (i.e. 'we don't use it').
4. Parnā in all its tenses may mean 'to lie in the way', as: Dillī jāne men, Patna rāste men partā hai, 'Patna lies on one's way to Delhi.'

## XXX. P $\bar{U} C H H N \bar{A}$

1. Pūchhnā, when it signifies 'to ask a question' or 'to say', requires se, as: Main ne us se uskā nām pūchhā, 'I asked him his name;' Main ne us se pūchhā ki tum ko $k y \bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ ? 'I said to him, "What has happened to you ?"'
2. When it signifies 'to inquire for a person', it takes ko, as: Bare $S$ āhib àp ko pūchhte thē, 'the Bare Sähib was asking after you (or for you).'

## XXXI. RAHNA

1. For hotā hai (vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 1,g), rahtā hai is often substituted, as: Gadhe kī pīth har waqt bojh se dabī rahtī hai (or hotī hai), 'the ass's back is never without a load '; Läl̄̄ bulbul ke wuh par jo dum ke nīche rahte hain (or hote hain) lāl hote hain, 'the feathers that are under the tail of the läl $\bar{\imath}$ species of bulbul are red.'
2. Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 11, $h$ (1), (2).

## XXXII. RAKHNA, KARNA, AND LĀNA

1. Rakhrīa signifies 'to keep', 'to preserve', as well as 'to place or put': Wuh ghore (or ghorā) rakht $\bar{a}$ hai, 'he keeps horses'; Agar apnī 'izzat rakhne chāhte ho-, 'if you desire to retain your honour (i.e. to avoid being disgraced)-.' Consequently, in compound verbs rakhn $\bar{a}$ indicates a continuation of an action, whereas $\operatorname{karn} \bar{a}$ (and sometimes lān $\bar{a}$ )
often indicates the commencement of the action. Dushmani karnä is 'to begin to be at enmity with a person', but dushmani rakhnā is 'to keep up enmity with'. Examples-
I have begun to have an Main us se muhabbat kartā affection for him.
I am fond of him (i.e. always). Main us se muhabbat rakhtā hūn.
I believe in the existence of Main dūzakh par īmān rakhtā hell.
The infidel believed (was con- Käfir ìmān lāyā. verted).
She began to pretend artfully. Wuh nakhra lā, i.
She is a tricky female.
Wuh nakhra kartì hai.
2. Vide also XXI.

## XXXIII. SAKNA

1. The verb saknã can only be used in a compound; it cannot stand alone. Such sentences as 'He can do this, but I cannot' are frequently translated by Bengalis and by servants of Europeans, Wuh is kām ko kar-saktā hai magar main nahīn saktā: here saktā should be kar-saktā.
2. Vide XL, 7.

## XXXIV. THAHARNA

This verb means : (1) 'to come to a standstill' ; (2) 'to remain standing still'; (3) 'to wait'; (4) 'to be proved, considered '; (5) 'to be settled, determined '; (6) 'to last, endure'. Examples-
(1) The carriage came to a Gārī chalte chalte thahar-ga, $\bar{\imath}$. standstill.
(2) Stand still (remain stand- Apmī jagah par ṭhaharo. ing) where you are.
(8) Wait till he returns.

Uske àne tak yahän ṭhaharo.
(4) He was proved a liar Wuh jhūṭā thaharā. (also, he turned out to be a liar).
(5) It was settled (deter- Yih bāt thahar-ga, $\bar{\imath}$ ki kal mined) that I should start main yahān se rawāna hün. to-morrow.
(6a) These boots won't last Yih jūtā ${ }^{1}$ bahut nahīn țhahalong. regā.
(6b) Meat won't keep in the Garmiyon men gosht nahin hot weather. thahartā.

## XXXV. PRESENT TENSE

1. The Present Tense indicates (1) an act now taking place, or (2) an habitual act, or (3) a universal truth, or (4) an immediate future, or (5) an immediate past, or (6) past time the effects of which still continue. It is also used for (7) past time in a vivid narration (Historical Present), (8) as a Future to indicate certainty, and (9) as a Future Subjunctive. Examples-
(1) The sahib is now sleeping. $S \bar{a} h i b i b$ abh $\bar{\imath}$ sote hain.
(2) I take a warm bath daily. Main har roz garm pāñ se ghusl kartā hūn.
(8) He was such a fool that he did not know the sky was (is) above his head.
(4) All right, I'll let you off.
(5) The Colonel Sahib has Karnail Şāhib āp ko bulāte called you.

Wuh is qadr ahmaq thā ki yih tak ${ }^{2} n a-j \bar{a} n t \bar{a}$ thā ki us ke sar par āsmān hai.
Khair, main tum ko chhordetā hūn. hain (or, —ne-bulāyā hai).

[^10](6) I have known him for Main us ko bahut din se jāntā a long time.
(7a) When I came home late last night I saw that your lamp was still burning.
(7b) As soon as I set foot in the room I saw a thief concealed under the table.

Vide also XXXVI, 7.
(8) I will come there in a year or so to see you.
(9) If I catch him I'll give him his deserts.

Main do el baras men wahān $\bar{a} t \bar{a}$ hün aur tum se mulāqāt kartā hün.
Agar main use pātā hün, to usko uske kiye kä maza chakkātā hün.

In the following the verb is in the Present on account of the direct narration :-
(10) I saw his face (by the Main ne us kā chihra dekh $\bar{a}$
light of the lamp) and returned thanks to God that it was not my son.

Note.-After an Historical Present, either the Direct or the Indirect Narration may be employed, as : Kyā dekhtā hai ki uskī (or merī) t.taraf ek sher daurā ātā hai.
2. A continuous act now taking place may also be expressed by a compound with rahnā, as : Abhī wuh so-rahā hai, 'he is now sleeping ' = abhī soyā hū,ā hai.

Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 11, $h$ (1), (2).
3. Immediate intention is expressed thus: Wuh likhne ko hai, or likhne-wälā hai, 'he is just going to write.'
4. If the auxiliary is suppressed (in negative sentences ${ }^{1}$ ), the verb in the feminine plural takes an $n$ to show it is plural, as: Yih 'auraten burāa kām nahīn kartīn (or nahīn kartī hain).
5. In two co-ordinate sentences the auxiliary need only be mentioned once, as: (affirmatively) Wuh āta jātā hai ; wuh khātī aur pīt̄̄ hai; (negatively) Wuh na-ātā hai na-jātā; wuh na-khätī hai na-pītī.
6. In quoting an author either the Present or the Perfect can be used, as: 'Sa'di says,' Shaikh Sa'dī farmäte hain, or Shaikh Sa'dī ne farmāyā hai.
7. Vide XL, 8, and XLII, 9.
8. Further examples-

I have known him from Main bach-pan $h \bar{\imath}$ se usko infancy.
I have never had even the Jab se main paidā hū, $\bar{a}$ (hün) appearance of comfort since I was born.
When can such a thing be found again? (i.e. never).

I will send you the sonnet after correction.
I have had fever for a month. Should he be coming here I shall be (am) delighted.
I don't think he intends to sell the goshawk; even if he were to sell it, it is ${ }^{3}$ not worth keeping. kabhī main ne ârām kī ṣ̂̀rat nahīn dekhi.
Wuh kab (or kakān) hāth ātā hai (or āne-wālā hai)? (wuh kahīn hāth āne-wālā hai ?).
Ghazl, ba'd iṣlāh ke, bhejtā hün.
Mujhe elk māh se tap ātī hai. Agar wuh yahān ātā ho, to barā kihushī kī bāt hai. ${ }^{2}$
Merā khiyāl hai ki wuh bāz nahīn bechne kā ; jo bechtā ho tau bhī rakhne ke lā,iq nahin hai. ${ }^{3}$

[^11]D.V. I'll come to you before the end of December.

Khudā chāhe, to äkhir Disambar tak tum ko ā-dekhtā han ( $=$ Khudā chāhe Disambar āyāa aur main ne tum ko à-dekhā).
I saw in the paper that a Main ne alchbār men dekhā meeting of the Trustees of the Museum is to be held (would be held) next week. If you come, well.

I thought it (the book) would Main ne yih samajh-kar ki, be of no use to you, so I didn't give it to you. (or parhā) ki 'ajā,ib-khāne ke 'Trastīyon' kā jalsa agle hafte dar pesh hai.
Agar $\bar{a}, o$, to achchhā hai $(=$ hogà). ' Yih tumhare kis kām kī hai ?' ${ }^{2}$ tumhen na-di.
Vide also second example in XXXVI, 8.

## XXXVI. THE AORIST OR PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE

1. (a) As a finite verb in proverbs, ${ }^{3}$ the Aorist is generally, perhaps always, used for the Present Indicative, as: Bandar jāne adrak kā sawād? ' does a monkey appreciate the taste of ginger?' (= cast not your pearls before swine).
(b) In sayings, however, the Present Indicative is also used, as: Tälù donon häthon se bajti hai, 'it takes two hands to clap' ('it takes two to make a quarrel,' or = 'don't be selfish; if I help you, you must help me').
(c) Khudā jäne, 'God knows!' (an exclamation), but Khudā jäntā hai ki main sach boltā hün, 'God is witness that I am speaking the truth.'
2. As a finite verb, in questions, it indicates uncertainty or
${ }^{1}$ Here the Preterite is used for the Future for certainty. For aur, vide VIII, 3, and 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 25, $h$.
${ }^{2}$ Direct narration.
${ }^{3}$ Formerly the Aorist and Present were identical in form ; and as proverbs are usually old, the employment of the Aorist in them may be a survival. The Present Tense used to be considered a combination of the participle and the substantive verb.
doubt, etc., as: Kyā karūn? ' what can I do?' The Aorist implies a duty or doubt, the Future asks about a fact, as: Wuh äwe? 'has he permission to come?' 'may he come?' but Wuh äwegā ? ' will he come (or won't he) ?' Vide also Future, XXXVII, 2 (b), last two examples.
3. It is also used in asking permission or advice, as : Kyā main jā,un? 'have I permission to go ?' Kis ko dun? 'to whom shall I (or should I) give it?' Yih kahān jā,e? 'where do you order him to go ?' but Yih kahān jā,egā ? ' where does he intend going?' (a simple question) : with kyā karün and $k y \bar{a} k a r u \bar{u} g \bar{a}$, however, this distinction is not nicely observed.
4. It expresses a wish, as : Khudā terā bhalā kare, 'God deal well with thee!' (a blessing; often ironical as an expression of impatience or annoyance).
5. It gives the missing persons of the Imperative, as: Chaten, 'let us go.' It is also used for polite commands, vide XXXVII, 9, and XXXVIII, 1 (a) and 5.
6. (a) As a subordinate verb it is used as a subjunctive after the conjunctives ' if ', 'that ', ' perhaps ', ' ' in order to', 'on condition that', 'before that', etc., and it expresses hope, desire, inclination, advice, necessity, duty, etc., as: Jā,o, 'you may go ;' Khair kuchh hī do, mujhe manzür hai, ' well, whatever you may choose to give me I'll accept gladly ;' Mere pās ko,i kitäb nahin hai ki (or jo) parhūn, 'I have no book to read' (lit. that I should read it); Qarīb thā ki ghore par se gir-jā,e, 'he nearly fell off his horse' (lit. it was near that he should fall) ; Ummed kai ki usko taraqqī mile (or to express more certainty, milegī), 'I hope he will get promotion' (that he may get-).
(b) It is even used to express past time, as : Mere pās ko,i kitāb na-thī ki parhūn (or, better, parhtā̀), 'I had no book to

[^12]read, that I should read it' (or, better, parht $\bar{a}=$ that I should have read it) ; Is se pahle ki main paidā hün (or, not so good, hū, $\bar{a}){ }^{1}$ yih wäqi'a ho-chuk $\bar{a}$ thā, ' this happened before I was born' (lit. before that I may be born).

In 'Perhaps our (future) meeting was written in my Fate that (and hence) I escaped in the great epidemic last year ', shāyad merī taqdīr men tumhārī mulāqāt likhī thī ki main pār sāl 'āmm wabā se jītā bach-rahā (not rahün), the last clause is not subordinate as at first sight it may appear, and hence the Aorist cannot be substituted.

Remark I.-Though the Aorist is used, as in the examples above, after $q a b l$ is ke, etc., 'before,' the Preterite must be used after $b a$ 'd uske, etc., 'after that,' as the time is anterior to the principal clause: ' This happened after I was born,'


Remark II.-Note the sequence of tenses in the following: $B a^{\prime} d$ us ke ki insān mar-jā,e (not martā hai) us ko dafn karo, jalā,o mat, ' after death you should bury and not burn ;' but Ba'd us ke ki insän martā hai us ko dafn karte hain; in the latter the Present Indicative requires a Present Indicative after it, and it could not be followed by an Imperative.
(c) The Aorist frequently occurs in direct narration, as: Khiyāl àyā hai ki (or ji men āyā hai ki) āj shàm ko thetar dekhne ja, unn, 'it has just come into my head to go to the theatre to-night' (lit. -that ' let me go to the theatre tonight') ; or khiyāl men āyā hai ki ' thetar jānā chähiye', or ' thetar chaliye', which are also direct narration.
(d) After jab, used conditionally, the Aorist is used : 'Tell him when he comes,' $j a b$ wuh $\bar{a}, e\left(n o t ~ \bar{a}, e g \bar{a}^{2}\right.$ ) use khabar karnä. ${ }^{3}$ Compare with first example in 6 (b), Remark II.

[^13]The Present Indicative is used after $j a b$, only when it is temporal, as : Jab wuh yahān àtā hai (tab or to) mere sāth shatranj kheltā hai, ' whenever, on every occasion that, he comes here, he plays chess with me.' In other words, $j a b$ with the Present Indicative always means $j a b k a b h \bar{i}$, 'whenever.'

Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lessons 16, g, and 81, $b$.
7. (a) The Aorist is also used as an Historical Present for the Preterite or Present Indicative, as: Kamre men jo pā,on rakhūn (or rakhtā hūn or rakhā) to kyā dekhtā hūn ki ek chor mez ke nīche chipā baithā hai; but kyā dekhūn here could not be used.
(b) It is also used as an Historical Present for the Imperfect of habitual action, as : Main jab kabhī wahān jā,ūn to kyā dekhün ki wuh so-rahā hai, ' whenever I went (used to go there), I found him sleeping.'
(c) In Conditions it is sometimes interchangeable with the Preterite Indicative; vide XLII, 5, and LVI, 5 (b).
8. The Aorist is politely used for the Future; thus a servant would say to his master, $\bar{A} p$ thori der tashrīf rakhiye main $\underline{z} a r \bar{a}^{1}$ rotē kh $\bar{a}-\bar{a}, \bar{u} n,{ }^{1}$ ' if you will kindly wait a moment, sir, I will go and get something to eat and come back' (lit. I may go ${ }^{2}$ and-); but a master would say to his servant, Tum yahän ṭhaharo ham khä-kar āte hain. ${ }^{\text {. }}$
9. The Aorist is sometimes used to express regret, some such expression as haif $k i$ being understood, as: Tiu wahān dāne däne ko tarse aur main yahān donon waqt ${ }^{4}$ pet bharkar

[^14]khayā karinn, ' ' (ah that) you should be there longing for even a grain, while I here eat my fill twice a day.'
10. After dekhiye $=$ ' let us see ' the Aorist or the Present Tense is used, but not the Future : Dekhiye kyā pesh ā,e (or
 adverb signifying distant time were to be added, the Future would be incorrect. Vide also XXXVII, 1, 2.
11. The Aorist is sometimes interchangeable with the Present Dubious ; vide 13 and L, 1, and VII, 8.
12. For the Aorist after an Indefinite Antecedent, vide VII, Relative Pronoun, 8.
13. Note the idiomatic use of the Aorists in the following: Jo shakhs $\underline{K h u d a ̄} k i \overline{~ ' i b a ̈ d a t ~ k a r e ~(o r ~ k a r t a ̄ ~ h o) ~ w u h ~ m a i n ~ h u ̈ n, ~}$ 'I am the only one that worships God,' but main wuh shakhs hün jo Khudà kĩ 'ibādat kartā hai (not kare): Main jab chāhün, $\bar{a}$-jā-saktā hün; gārī mangā, ūnaur chal-dūn, 'I can come and go as I please ; I have only to order a carriage and start.' This last use, however, of the Aorist is not common; the Preterite could be substituted. Us se to kaho ki yih käm kare (or kar), 'you may tell him to do it (but he won't be able to).'
14. Lagnā after an Infinitive may sometimes take the place of a Subjunctive; vide H.S.S., 9, $b$, XLIV, 8, and XXXVII, 6.
15. Examples-
(1) Have I permission to say

Main kuchh bolin? something?
(2) Shall I too go ?
(3) Abuse me to your heart's content; I don't care.
(4) How can I face teacher? (I'm ashamed to go before

Main bhī jā,ūn?
Hazār gālū do ${ }^{2}$ mujhe parwā nahin.
Main kyā munh leke ustād ke pās jā,ün? him).

## ${ }^{1}$ See n. 4 on previous page.

${ }^{2}$ Hazir $=$ 'however much'; do is Aorist and not Imperative : $k o, i$ hazär gàl̃ de mujhe parwà nahĩn.
(5) How dare I tell you that I love you?
(6) Your position does not entitle you to be a darbāri ( $=$ 'who are you to be a darbārī?' said contemptuously).
(7) I estimate there are about twenty persons.
(8) God's curse on thee!
(9) How on earth, how the devil, can one enjoy oneself with a deaf mute as a companion?
(10) How is it possible for this to be the case?
(11) Is it impossible that I should take leave of you and take service elsewhere?
(12) A copy of Haji Baba reached me before you sent me yours.
(13) What else could $I^{3}$ have done except hitting him back?
(14) Shall he do it (asks permission) ?

Main kis munh se kahūn ki tumhen chāhtā hūn?
Tumhārā munh nahīn ki lāt Ṣāhib ke darbār men jā,o.

Atkal se kahtā hūn ki bīs ek $\bar{a} d m \bar{\imath}$ honge (not hon); but shāad bīs ek $\bar{a} d m \bar{\imath}$ hon or honge.
Tujh par la'nat ho!
Ek gūnge bahre ke sāth insān $k y a \bar{a} k h \bar{a} k ~ d i l ~ b a h l \bar{a}, e$ ?

Yih kyūn-kar ho-saktā hai (not ho-sake ${ }^{1}$ )?
Yih nahin ho-saktā ${ }^{2}$ ki main $\bar{A} p$ ko chhor-kar kisī aur kī naukarī karün?

Ḥājı̄ Bābā kā ek nuskha pahle is-ke ki tum bhejo (or tum ne bhejā) mere pās pahunch chuk $\bar{a}$ th $\bar{a}$.
Siwā,e is ke aur kyā kar-saktā thä ki main ${ }^{3}$ us kī mār kā jawāb dūn?
Kyā wuh kare?
${ }^{1}$ Ho-sakegā is used only for a real Future.
${ }^{2}$ Ghair mumkin, mumkin nahin, etc., are not used by the uneducated.
${ }^{3}$ Note the position of main in this sentence ; it could be inserted before aur.
(15) Will he do it or not (asks Kyā wuh karegã? information)? (also $=$ he won't do it, is he likely to do it ?).
(16) I have no fit book to Mere pās aisì ko,ī kitäb nahinn present to your Honour. hai jo qäbil huzzūr ke ho (not hai).

## XXXVII. FUTURE

1. The Future indicates an absolute or definite future, as: Wuh kal āwegā, ' he will come to-morrow.'

Remark.-For the immediate future the Present Tense is used, vide $\mathrm{XXXV}, 1$ (4).
2. (a) It is used presumptively with some word expressing ta,kīd, as : Wuh kal zarṻr āwegā, 'it is presumed he will come to-morrow,' 'he is certain to come to-morrow.'
(b) After verbs of hoping, fearing, considering, certainty, etc., the Future is used presumptively, as: Mujhe ummed thi $k i$ wih mujhe in'äm degā, 'I hoped that he would give me a reward ;' Main ḍarā ki wuh mujhe märegā (or aisā na-ho ki wuh mujhe märe '), 'I feared he would hit me;' Main $j a \bar{a} t \bar{a}$ thä $k i$ wuh $\bar{a}, e g \bar{a}$, , I knew that he would come.'

Hog $\bar{a}$, 'it will be so,' ' it must be so,' or 'it might be so ' : Yaqin hai ki Khudà ke sāmne mujhe apne $\bar{a}^{\text {b }}$ māl kā jawāb denā paregā, 'I know for certain that I shall have to stand before God and be called to account for my actions;' but Yaqin hai ki yih khatt do din us ke pahunchne se pahle tumhāre pās pahunche (not pahunchegā), 'I feel sure or I trust that this letter will reach you two days before he does;' in the latter case the writer cannot assume certain knowledge, and therefore the Aorist is necessary.
(c) Vide also XXXVI, 10.
3. It is used in Future Conditions with a slight idea of

[^15]certainty, vide LVI. Agar h.ukm ho to ham wahān jā,en, 'I am ready to go if you only order me,' i.e. ' I am merely waiting for your orders'; but Agar hukm ho to ham wahān $j \bar{a}$, enge, ' I will go if you order me to (but I don't want to).'

Remark.-For the Aorist and Future after jab, vide XXXVI, 6 (d), and notes.
4. In Conditions it can take the place of the Precative Future Imperative, as : Agar $\bar{a} p$ yih kām kījiyegā (or karenge) to goyā mujhe mol-līijyegā (or le-lenge), 'if you will graciously do this you will make me your slave ;' vide Imperatives, 1 (b).

Remark.-Note the Future here after goyā, 'as though;' in literal English, 'it will be as though you have bought me.'
5. The Future of chuknã often supplies an English Perfect, as: 'When I have eaten I will drink,' jab main khān $\bar{a} k h \bar{a}-$ chukūngā tab pān̄̄ pī,ūngā.
6. Lagnā with the Infinitive can take the place of the Future, as: Main us se kyūn milne lagä? (or milün) = main us se na-milüngā.
7. The Future of hona $\bar{a}$ when a simple verb is also used for past time: hogā, ' will be,' 'must be,' 'might be,' and 'must have been'; but hū, $\bar{a}$ hog $\bar{a}$, ' must have occurred,' ' must have become.' 1 The difference in these cases between $h o g \bar{a}$ and $h \bar{u}, \bar{a} h o g \bar{a}$ is the same as that between hai and hot $\bar{a}$ hai, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 1, g, as: Tum bachpan men bare sharīr hoge (not hū,e hoge), 'you must have been ${ }^{1}$ very naughty in your childhood;' but Yih bāt hū, $\bar{i} h o g \bar{\imath}$, 'this must have occurred,' ${ }^{1}$ and Main ghadr se pahle paid $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a} h \bar{u} n g a$, 'I must have been born (become born) before the mutiny.'
8. In other cases the English Future Perfect will be represented in Hindustani by the Simple Future when there is no doubt in the case ; vide Future Perfect, LIV, 2.
${ }^{1}$ When 'must have been' can be rendered in English by 'must have occurred or become', it is to be translated hā $\bar{a} h o g \bar{a}$, otherwise by $h o g \bar{a}$.
9. Country people, when writing, use the Future in giving polite commands, as : Merā salām apne bhā, ī ko kah-doge (for kah-do), but this is incorrect. In English the Future and in modern Persian the Present Future is used in polite commands, but in Urdu the Aorist is so used.
10. It may take the place of an Aorist ; vide XXXVI, 8, also XLII, 7.
11. Examples-

I will commence this when Jab kām se fursat pā,ungā is I have leisure.
When I have finished this business I will commence the other.
Why should I lie about the matter? (i.e. I have no objection to lieas you want).
For what reason should I lie ? (i.e. why do you want me to lie about it ?).
When you went there, he must have stood up (become standing) on seeing you.
When you went there he must have been standing (in a standing state).
I must have been well by the time you came to me.
I must have recovered (become well) by the time you reached me.
There can never have been such peace and quiet in the country before.
Such an event can never have occurred before.

Aisā wäqi'a kabhī nā-hū, $\bar{a}$ $h o g a \bar{a}$.

He must be now wide awake Yih khabar sunke us ke kān on hearing of this.
He will certainly be successful in his examination this time.
When the Sahib comes I will Jab Sähib a àenge un ko khabar tell him.
If the Sahib comes tell him. Jab Sāhib ā,en¹ un ko khabar do.

## XXXVIII. IMPERATIVES

1. Besides the ordinary form of the Imperative there are three other forms.
(a) ( $\bar{A} p$ ) baithiye, pl., 'please sit down (now) '; respectful. The negative is na-baithiye (mat is rather imperious).

The original passive gerundial suffix in Hindi was $i y \bar{a}$, as : Kariya, 'it was fit to be done.' The impersonal verb chähiye may be a survival of this form. Kyā kahiye ? 'what should one say?' 'what is to be said?' kyā jāniye? 'what should be known?' 'how does one know?' and na-jāniye, 'one does not know,' are said to be survivals and are used as Aorists.
(b) The precative ( $\bar{A} p$ ) kījiegā, 2nd person plural, ' please do it (in the future),' respectful, as: ( $\bar{A} p)$ kal do-pahar tashrif lā,iyeg $\bar{a}^{2}{ }^{2}$ ' please come at noon to-morrow ;' incorrectly and in vulgar Delhi Hindustani tashrīf lā,o.

In (a) there is some idea of command, but (b) is precative only. $\bar{A} p m u$ ' $\bar{a} f$ k $\bar{j} j i y e g \bar{a}$, ' will you please excuse me,' is more respectful than $\bar{a} p$ mu'āf kījiye, 'please excuse me.' Vide also XXXVII, 4.
(c) The third form is polite but not 'respectful', and is generally used to inferiors; it is singular ${ }^{3}$ or plural Future,

[^16]as: (T'ū or tum) dījiyo, sing. or pl., 'give it (to-morrow or whenever you can); ' Ko,īa, iyo $k o, \bar{i} \bar{a}, i y o$, ' come somebody, come somebody' (in commands $k o, \bar{\imath} \quad \bar{a}, o$ ). Baithiyo, for instance, could only be used as a Future, as : Jab tum wahān $j \bar{j}, o$ to kursi par baithiyo. This form is used as a singular precative in addressing the Deity, as: Ay Khudē us ko zinda rakhiyo ; vide also 4.
2. (a) and (b) are often used for the 2 nd person plural Aorist or Future to show respect, as: Agar àp rupiya dijive to wäpas na-manngiye, 'if you are kind enough to give me the money you mustn't ask for it back;' Phir $\bar{a} p$ chaliyeg $\bar{a}$ kahän? 'then where will you be pleased to go?' Khudā kī la'nat kāfiron par hüjiyo; old for ho.
8. (a) is also used impersonally, as: Jī chāhtā hai ki is waqt so-rahiye, ' I want to sleep;' Kyā jāniye ki wuh $\bar{a}$, ega $y \vec{a}$ nahin? 'how is one to know whether he will come or not?'
4. (c) is also used as a precative, as: Khudā ki la'nat us par hüjiyo (or ho), 'God's curse light on him!' In modern Urdu ho is preferred.
May the shaft of my sighs Jis ne tīr mārā merī $\bar{a} h^{1} k \bar{a}$ pierce the heart (lit. liver) tīr us ke kaleje men lagiyo.
of him that smote thee
with this arrow.
5. The 3rd person plural Aorist is also used as a respectful Imperative, as : Āp tashrif rakhen, 'please sit down.'
B. Vide XXXIX, 4.

Remark. - 'Kindly do this,' or such phrases, must be rendered by mihrbānī karke or some equivalent ; the respectful Imperatives are used only towards people of superior or equal rank, or towards inferiors of high rank.

[^17]
## XXXIX. THE INFINITIVE

For the following note I am indebted to Dr. G. A. Grierson, C.I.E. :-

1. 'The so-called Hindūstānī infinitive in $n \bar{\alpha}$, as in chal-n $\bar{a}$, " to go," has a composite derivation.

Amongst the numerous derivations of a Sanskrit verbal root, there are-
(a) An abstract noun ending in -anaim (or -anaim), as in chal-anam, " the act of going."
(b) A future passive participle in -anīyas (or -aniyas), with exactly the same force as, and with the same derivation as, the Latin future passive participle in endus, etc. Thus, chalañ̄yas, "about to be gone," proper "to be gone", or (neuter) "it is to be gone", "one should go ". Compare the Latin (ex-)cellendus.

With the addition of certain terminations, both these become $n \bar{a}$ in Hindūstānī. So that chal-n $\bar{a}$ may be either a noun (= chal-anam $\dot{\text { ) , " the acting of going," "to go," or it may be }}$ a participle, i.e. an adjective (chal-nā, fem. chal-n $\bar{\imath}$ ), meaning "fit to be gone", " worthy to go ", "one should go".

Similarly, $m \bar{a} r-n \bar{a}$ is either $m \bar{a} r$-anam, " the act of striking," "to strike," or mār-anīyas, " fit to be struck," " worthy to be struck," as an adjective. Kar-n $\bar{a}$ is either kar-anam, " the act of doing," " to do," or kar-anīyas, " fit to be done," "worthy to be done," as an adjective.
2. 'Examples of the infinitive or verbal noun arejhūuth bōlnā burā hai, " to lie is wrong;"
łchānē-men sharm ky $\bar{a} h a i ?$ "what shame is there in eating?" mārnē lag $\bar{a}$, for $m \bar{a} r n \bar{e}-k \bar{o}-l a g \bar{a}$, " he became attached to the act of striking," "he began to strike."
3. 'Examples of the future passive participle arejō kām karnā hai," the business which is to be done;" yih bāt karnī hai," this thing is to be done;"
jō kām karne hain, " the things which are to be done;"
mujh-ko jānā hai, "as for me, it is to be gone, I must go " (mihi eundum est, word for word the same idiom in Latin).
Owing to the two words being identical in form, the two are often confused, even by good writers. Though identical in appearance they have different meanings, just as märe may mean either " he may strike" or " they were struck".'
4. As an Imperative the Infinitive is less peremptory, and is therefore more civil than the Imperative proper. It is properly a Future Imperative, but is also used politely for a Present Imperative. Wahān mat $j \bar{a}, o$ is said to be a person either actually on the move or just about to move, but wahän na-jāna refers to a future action or politely to a present action.

Thus, 'avoid all that leads to adultery ' is better translated by zinā ke pās bhī na-jān $\bar{a}^{1}$ (Future) than by zinā ke pās bh $\bar{\imath}$ mat $j \bar{a}, o$.
5. The Passive Infinitive, if the logical subject is mentioned, is never used ; its place is in such cases taken by the Active, as: Wuh apmi mān ke sikhāne se yih boli, 'she was instructed by her mother to say this;' ${ }^{2}$ Mere bāp ke māre-jäne par merā sürā whole family was ruined.'

## XL. IMPERFECT

1. The Imperfect denotes frequency or duration of an action, or that a continuous action was going on at some past time, as: Pahār bār bār gunjte the, 'the hills gave back the echo again and again;' Wuh jänvar apne ko nazaron se chupā,e rakhtā thā lekin uskī āuāz se ma'lüm hotā thā ki wuth ko,i baṛā jänwar hai, ' that animal continued to keep out of sight, but from its cry I thought that it must be some large beast;' Us ke rone dhone se bādshāh kī nāk men dam

[^18]$\bar{a}$-gayā lekin us ke chup karāne $k \bar{\imath} k o, \bar{\imath}$ tadbīr samajh men $n a-a \bar{t} t \bar{\imath}$ thī, ' the king was wearied by his (the slave's) lamentation, but no plan of silencing him could be thought of.'

Remark.-The progressive, not the habitual, action of the Imperfect may be expressed by means of rahnā, as : Main $j \bar{a}-r a h \bar{a}$ thā $k i-$, 'I was going along when-; ' vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 11, $h(1)$ and (2).
2. The Imperfect also signifies that an action was a habit. In English it is frequently represented by the Past Tense: 'It was his custom to take a stroll early before breakfast,' us kī yih 'ādat thī ki roz subbl ko tahlīà kartā (thāà); 'He did this every night,' wuh har shab yih kām kiyā kartā thā or $k a r t \bar{a}$ tha (not Preterite nor kartā-rahā) ; but if the limits of the time were defined the Preterite would be substituted, as: Us ne mahine bhar tak har rāt yih kām kiyā (or wuh yih kām kartā-rahā, but not kartā thā).
3. The Imperfect sometimes signifies 'began to-', or 'to be on the point of doing ': 'I went to the city and began to look at (while I was looking at) the shops when suddenly I heard the sound of firing,' main shahr ko gayā aur, dukānon $k \bar{a}$ tamāshā dekhtā thā ki yak-ā-yak top kī àwāz $\bar{a}, \bar{i}$; 'The bird was just going to settle on the tree when some one fired off a gun,' chiryy $\begin{gathered}\text { darakht par baithā chāht̄̄ thī ki kisī ne bandūq }\end{gathered}$ 'fair' kī. Sometimes it indicates a wish, as: Main wahān na-jātā-thā magar wuh mujhe zabardastī (se) le-gayā, 'I did not want to go, but he made me; he took me there by force.'
4. In interrogations it indicates emphatic refusal, as: Us ko qaid-klāane se rihā, $\bar{\imath} p \bar{n} n e ~ k \bar{\imath} \bar{a} r z \bar{u}$ thī lekin wuh kab rihā, $\bar{\imath}$ pāt $\bar{a}$ th $\bar{a}$ ? ' he hoped to be released from prison, but there was no chance of it;' Bandüq chaltī na-thī, 'the gun would not go off;' Bārūt namī ke bä̀ iṣ sulagtī na-thī, 'the powder would not ignite on account of being damp;' Us ko ma'lüm

[^19]thā ki yahuan haiza hai is liye kab ātā thā ? 'he knew that there was cholera here, so of course he did not come.' ${ }^{1}$
5. In two or more co-ordinate clauses the tha, , etc., of the Imperfect may be expressed with the last only, as: Wuh subh ko uth-kar pahle wuẓī kartā, phir namāz paṛhtā, aur tab ko,ī aur kām kartā thā. Vide also LXII, 3 (a).
6. The Imperfect and Present of dena are used in the sense of 'to offer', as : Main ghore ke liye sau rūpiya detā thā, 'I offered a hundred rupees for the horse,' but kitne ko diya tha? 'for how much did he sell it?' Main sau rupiya detā thä lekin wuh kab letā thā (or us ne qabül na-kiyā), 'I offered him a hundred rupees, but he refused.'
7. The Imperfect of a verb compounded with saknā can sometimes take the place of the conditional, as : Phir jab tak $\bar{a} p k \bar{a}$ khatt Rangīn k $\bar{a}$ pattā likh $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a} n a-\bar{a}, e^{2}$ main $\bar{a} p$ ko khatt kyün-kar likh-saktā thā or likhtā? 'so until I got your letter with your address at Rangoon, how could I write?' Vide also VII, 8.
8. A Present Tense in direct narration may become an Imperfect in indirect, as: Agar main wahān hotā to unhen dekhlā-detā ki main un ke liye kyā kuchh kar-saktā (thā), 'had I been there I would have shown them what I could have done for them;' in direct narration main - kar-saktā hün or kartā hūn.
9. The Imperfect can sometimes take the place of the Present Dubious; vide Present Dubious, L, 3.
10. The Imperfect sometimes takes the place of the Aorist ; vide VII, Relative Pronoun, 8.

## 11. Vide XXXVI, 7 (b), and LXII, 8 (c).

[^20]
## XLI. THE PERFECT

1. The Perfect is indefinite ; the Past or Preterite usually definite; it is therefore incorrect both in English and Hindustani to say 'I have seen him yesterday' ; Wuh Lāhor gayā or gayā hai, 'he has gone to Lahore;' but Merā bhā, $\bar{\imath}$ Lahor gayā magar main nahīn gay $\bar{a}$ : in this last example gayā hai could not be substituted; vide also XLIII, 1, n. 1, and 2 (b).
2. Sometimes either the Perfect or the Past Tense may be used according to the point of view of the speaker, as: 'Long nights I wept and wailed ere God bestowed on me this child,' main ne kitnī rāten āh o zārī men guzārī hain (or guzārīn) jab jākar ${ }^{1}$ Khudā ne mujhe yih larkā 'aṭā kiyā (hai). If hai be inserted in this last sentence, it indicates that the boy is alive ; omit it, and he may be living or dead.
3. The Perfect also expresses a past time, the effects of which still continue, as: Jab se main yahān $\bar{a} y \bar{a} h \bar{u} n ~ u s k o$ nahin dekhā hai, 'I have not seen him since I came (lit. have come) ${ }^{2}$ here;' Main ne shādì kì hai, 'I have married (and my wife is still living) ;' Us ko fajr se bulihār chaṛh $\bar{a}$ hai (not charh $\bar{a}$ ), 'he has had fever since the morning (and still has it) ;' Us ko āj tap charh $\bar{i}$, ' the fever attacked him to-day (and he may or may not have it still); ' but Us ko āj tap charhī hai, 'he has fever to-day.'
4. The Perfect also indicates an action just completed if the effects continue, as: Main $a b h \bar{\imath} \bar{a} y \bar{a} h \bar{u} n$ (or $\bar{a} y \bar{a}),{ }^{3}$ 'I have just come ;' Wuh is sāl ghar gayā hai, 'he has gone home this year (and is still there) ;' vide also XLII, 3.

Remark.-If, however, the effects of the action do not continue, the Preterite is used, as: Tum ne dawā kh $\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$ ? 'have
${ }^{1}$ For jab jäkar (indicating a long time) vide ' Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 29, d.
${ }^{2}$ It is a common English vulgarism to use the Perfect after a temporal 'since'.
${ }^{3} \bar{A} y \bar{a}$ in reply to a question ; main abh̄̄ $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$ also signifies 'I'm coming back in a moment' ; vide XLII, 7, 8.
you swallowed the medicine (just now) ?' but Tum ne dawā khä, $\bar{i}$ hai? 'have you taken the medicine or some one else?' vide 5.
5. In questions the Perfect indicates a certainty of the action having been done, as: Tum ne yih kām kiyā hai? 'was it you who did this (or some one else) ?' but Tum ne yih kiyā ? 'have you done the thing I told you to do, or not?' (the speaker does not know).
6. In such expressions as 'have you ever heard that-?' or 'have you ever seen-?' the Preterite is preferred to the Perfect, as: Tum ne yih kabhī sunā (or sunā hai)?
7. When the English Perfect expresses time, as in such expressions as 'I have lived here for years', 'I have known him since childhood', the Urdu idiom requires the Present, as: Jab se main paidā hū, $\bar{a}$ (or hū, $\bar{a}$ hūn) main kisī na-kisī muşibat men giriftär rahtā hìn, 'I have been unfortunate since I was born;' 'I have for a long time seen you going about barefooted,' bahut dinon se dekhtā hün ki tum nangepā,on (se) chalā karte ho. Vide XXXV, 1 (6).
8. 'Where have you been the last two hours?' (to an absent servant), tum do ghante tak kahän rahe? or do ghante se tum kahan the? vide also XLIII, 5, last example.
9. The Perfect also indicates mild astonishment, i.e. that an action was not expected, especially in questions, as: Ky $\bar{a}$ Amir Sähib Kalkatta (men) à, chain ? 'has the Amir come to Calcutta? I didn't know he was coming;' but kyāa $\bar{a}, e$ ? ' has the Amir yet arrived (I have heard he was coming)?' vide also XLIV, 5 , example (9), and note.
10. (a) In baithnā, sonā, parnā, kharā $\bar{a}$ hona, gārnā (and possibly one or two more intransitive verbs) the past participle with the substantive verb is used for the English Present, thus: Baithā (hū, $\bar{u}$ ) hai, 'he is sitting,' but baithtā hai, 'he sits habitually,' or 'is just going to sit down'; Wuh kharā hai, 'he is standing;' Wuh kharāa hotā hai, 'he stands habitually,' or 'he is just going to stand up'.
(b) With sonā, either the above construction or the Present can be used, as: Wuh soyā hai (or soyä hū, $\bar{a}$ hai) or sotā hai, 'he is sleeping.' Wuh abhī baithā hai (or baith-gayā hai), 'he has just sat down,' is Perfect; but wuh ab-tak baithā (or baith $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a})$ hai, 'he is still sitting there,' is the participle construction. Vide also XLIX, 7.
11. A similar construction occurs with transitive verbs, as: Likh $\bar{a} h a i$, 'it is written,' for likh $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a} h a i$; but us ne likhā hai, 'he has written.'
12. In quoting an author either the Perfect or Present is used ; vide Present Tense, XXXV, 6.

## XLII. PAST OR PRETERITE

1. As stated in XLI, 1, the Preterite, compared with the Perfect, refers to a definite point of time, as : 'He regrets his marriage,' wuh sar pīttā hai ki 'main ne shādī kyūn kī'1 (lit. 'he beats his head saying, "Why did ${ }^{1}$ I marry? "'); here the Perfect cannot be substituted, though, as the effects of the action continue, one might expect it ; vide XLI, 3 , also XL, 2.
2. The Preterite is used in narrating past events that closely follow on each other, and it will thus often take the place of the English Pluperfect, as: 'When I had rested a little and had refreshed myself, I got up intending to proceed on my way,' jab main ne thor $\bar{a}$ dam le-liyā aur kuchh kh $\bar{a}-p \bar{z}$-liyā main uth khara $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ aur chāhā ki āge chalūn; here the two first verbs could not be in the Pluperfect, as in the English.
3. The Preterite expresses an act just completed, and sometimes indicates ignorance or doubt, vide XLI, 5 , and XLIII, 2 (b), as: Main ne tujhe bakhlhsh-diyā agarchi munāsib na-thä, 'I have forgiven you (this moment), although I ought not to have done so;' Ma'lūm hū, $\bar{a}$ ki merī $\bar{a} w \bar{a} z ~ a c h c h h i ̄ ~ n a h i ̄ n, ~$

[^21]aur logon ko us se taklīf hotī hai, āzän dene se tauba kī, 'I have just learnt that I have an unmusical voice that distresses my neighbours, so I have renounced on the spot the idea of ever calling the $\bar{a} z a \bar{a} n . '$ Here, if hū, $\bar{a}$ hai were substituted for $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$, it would indicate that he had learnt the fact some days ago: tauba $k \bar{i}$, 'on the spot;' but had a person gone to him and requested him to call the $\bar{a} z \bar{\alpha} n$ he might have said main ne tauba ki hai, 'I have renounced the practice,' vide Perfect, XLI, 4.
4. It is used in future conditions to indicate a foregone conclusion, as: Agar rūpīya māngā to tumhen denā hī paregā, 'if he asks for the money (as he will do) you have no choice but to give it,' vide 7 and LVI, 5 (b) ; Maqdür hotā, to dekhā-detā ki main ne kyā kiyā, 'could I afford it I would show you what I could do.'
5. The Preterite is sometimes colloquially, but rarely, used for the Aorist or Present Subjunctive, as : 'Stay here the whole day and read, but of course if you tire while reading there is no harm in your resting a minute or two,' yahän din bhar baithe raho aur parhte raho, hān is men muzāayaqa nahīn ki agar parhte parhte thak-ga,e to do chär minat ke liye dam
 the whole day and to inform me when any visitor arrives,' darbān tumhārā kām yih hai ki din bhar darwāze par baithe rahe, agar ko,ī merì mulāqāt ko āyā to mujhe ittiliād dì (or -rahe aur kisi ke àne par ittiliā ${ }^{-} d \bar{\imath}$ ); 'Neither have I the bodily strength to take only a lota and start wandering on foot, to turn up one day in Shiraz, to tarry another in Egypt, to spend a third in Najaf,' na mujh men wuh tāãat-i jismānū ki ek loṭā le-lūn aur piyäda-pā chal-dūn kabhī Shīrāz jā-nikalā, $k a b h \bar{\imath} M i s ̧ r ~ m e n ~ j \bar{a}-t h a h a r a ̄, k a b h \bar{\imath}$ Najaf men j $\bar{a}$-pahunchā.
6. Two Preterites coupled by 'and' express simultaneity, past, present, or future, as : Tum khare hū,e aur gire, ${ }^{1}$ 'as

[^22]soon as you will stand up you will fall;' Ko, $\bar{\imath}$ bachcha sote men royā aur tum bedār $h \bar{u}, \bar{i} n$, '( $O$ women) the moment a child cries in its sleep you are awake' (i.e. this is your habit); Gāl̄̄ munh se nikl̄̄ aur main ne mārā, 'the abuse was no sooner out of his mouth than I hit him ' (or 'will no sooner be out of his mouth than I'll hit him ').
7. It is also used for an immediate Future ${ }^{1}$ in anticipation of its completion, as : Main ne yih kām abhī$k i y \bar{a}, ~ ' I ~ a m ~ j u s t ~$ going to do it.' Similarly, a servant says lāyà şāhib, 'I am just bringing it ; ' $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$, 'I am just coming.'

Remark.-The Preterite with chuknā is used ironically and indicates a negative future, as : Main wahān j $\bar{a}-\operatorname{ch} u k \bar{a}=$ ' catch me going' (lit. 'oh yes, I've gone there ', ironical).
8. The Preterite is often used for the Perfect, as: Main $a b h \bar{\imath} \bar{a} y \bar{a}$ (or $\bar{a} y \bar{a} h \bar{u} n$ ), 'I have just come' (vide XLI, 2-4); Jo bāten upar likh̄̄ ga, $\bar{\imath} n$ (or ga,i hain), 'what has been stated above;' Main ne yih massal is liye bayān kī (or kī hai) ki tum jāno ki-, 'I have cited this proverb to show you that-.'
9. It is rarely used for the habitual Present, as: Mujhe to be-kāri men tumhen khatt likhne kē ek shughl hai; qalam dawāt le-baithe aur do chār sataren ghasīt-dāl̄̄n, 'it is an employment for me to write to you when I have nothing to do; I then sit down and scribble you a few lines;' Uski ' $\bar{u} d a t ~ h a i ~(o r ~ t h \bar{\imath}) ~ k i ~ h a r ~ s u b h ~ k o ~ s o k a r ~ u t h \bar{a}, ~ m u n h ~ h a ̄ t h ~$ dhoy $\bar{a}$, aur sair ko nikl $\bar{a}$, 'it is (or was) his habit to rise early in the morning, wash his face and hands, and go for a walk.'
10. Note the following idioms: Ab rahā yih amr ki-, 'it now remains to be said that-; Sāt dūna chauda ke chār, $h \bar{a} t h ~ l a g a \bar{a} e k$, 'twice seven is fourteen, four and carry one;' Sāt men se tīn ga,e, bāqī rahe chār, 'three from seven leaves four ;' Mere das rūpai kharch hū,e, sirf do rah-ga,e (or bach $g a, e)$, 'I spent 10 rupees and have only 2 left.'
11. Vide also XXXVI, 6, Remark I.
${ }^{1}$ The Perfect cannot be used as a Future.

## XLIII. PLUPERFECT

1. The Pluperfect indicates a time anterior to the Preterite or Perfect, as: Jo $\bar{a} d m \bar{\imath}$ kal $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$ thā (or incorrectly $\bar{a} y \bar{a})$ so $\bar{a} j$ bhi aya ${ }^{1}$ hai, ' the man who came yesterday came to-day;'
 dinner before you came.'
2. (a) The past time to which the Pluperfect is anterior may be only implied, as: Us ko pār sāl hawā badalne se yūn $h \bar{\imath} s \bar{a} f \bar{a}, i d a \operatorname{hu}, \bar{a}$ th $\bar{a}$, 'last year he was just slightly benefited by a change of air;' here the Pluperfect indicates that the benefit has disappeared.
(b) To a master returning home and asking his servant whether the barber he had summoned has arrived or not, the following replies might be made:- $\bar{A} y \bar{a},{ }^{2}$ 'he has come;' $\bar{a}$-gay $\bar{a}$, ' he has just come; ' $\bar{a} y \bar{a} h a i,{ }^{1}$ vulgar and incorrect (as he was expected); $\bar{a} y \bar{a} t h \bar{a}$, ' he did come, but has gone away again.' Vide also XLI, 1.
3. It is sometimes used for the Past Conditional Tense (vide Conditional Sentences, LVI, 14), as: Agar āp mujhe na-bachāte main zarūr qaid hū, $\bar{a}$ thā (or hojāt $\bar{a}$ or h $\bar{u}, \bar{a} h o t \bar{a}$ ), 'had it not been for you, sir, I should certainly have been locked up.'
4. It is sometimes used to indicate distant time, as : $B a^{〔} d$ is ke ki main tere sāth aisì nekī kī thī, ab burā,ī kyय̄̈n karne lagūn? 'having previously treated you well, why should I now begin to treat you ill ?' here the Preterite could be substituted, but would not indicate such remote time.
5. Examples-

I went to see the Khan Kal main Khān sāhib kī yesterday, but he was out, so I didn't see him. mulāqāt ko gayā thā; kahīn bāhar tashrīf le-ga,e the, is wāste wuh mujhe na-mile. ${ }^{\text {. }}$

[^23]I was deaf, and now I am Pahle main bahrā (ho gayā) blind too.

He told my servant yesterday that he was coming to see me to-day. ${ }^{2}$
He had fever yesterday, but has none now.

I came to see you, sir, yesterday afternoon (but you were out).
I now (i.e. after the mutiny) sent him a plain unbound copy of the book, and yesterday got his reply acknowledging its receipt.
Where were you, where have you been? (to an absent servant on return). $h \bar{u} n^{1}$ (or $h \bar{u} n$ ).
Us ne kal mere naukar se kahā thā ki kal ${ }^{2}$ main tere sähib se milne $\bar{a}, \bar{u} n g \bar{a}$.
Hān, kal usko tap charhī thī ${ }^{3}$ [understood, lekin $\bar{a} j$ utarga, $\bar{\imath}]$.
Banda kal si-pahar (ke waqt) huzur kī khidmat men hāąir $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ th $\bar{a}$.
Main ne ab ek kitāb-i sāda be jild un ko bhejī thī; kal unkā lhhatt mujh ko kitāb $k i ̄ ~ r a s i ̄ d ~ m e n ~ m i l a ̄ . ~$

Kahān ga,e the (or kahān the)?

## XLIV. THE CONDITIONAL OR PAST CONDITIONAL TENSE

1. This is used in Conditional and Optative sentences, vide LVI, 1, 2, 7, 9-13, and 16. It may refer to time past or future, vide LVI, 1 and 7.
2. Its use as a Perfect Subjunctive is not, however, confined to conditional sentences. It is generally used after chähiye $t h \bar{a}$, etc., 'it was necessary,' though the Aorist or Present Subjunctive may take its place-
[^24]You ought to have done it. Lāzim thā ki yih karte (or karo $)=$ tum ko yih karnà thä or tum ko yih karnā chähiye thā.
8. The place of the Past Conditional may be supplied by the Pluperfect of lagnā, as: Main wahān kyūn jāne lagā thā $?=$ main wahān kyūn jātā? 'why should I have gone there?' Vide Aorist 6, $b$, and 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 9, b(2).
4. Sometimes a verb compounded with saknā may take its place ; vide XL, 7, and VII, 8.
5. Examples of the Past Conditional-
(1) I had no book to read (lit. that I should have read it) (or parhūn, ' that I should read it').
(2) I have not seen him for the last few days, and so could not mention your letter (lit. that your letter should have been mentioned).
(8) I perceived no beauty in her to make me fall in love with her.
(4) I had not a farthing with me to give the begger.
(5) You should merely have written to me that you received the prose composition.
(6) I got no letter at all from you, so how could I have answered?

Mere pās ko,ī kitāb na-th̄̄ jo parhtā (or parhūn).

In dinon men us se merī mulāqāt nahin hū,i hai jo tumhāre kihatt kā zikr ātā (not âve).

Main ne us men kuchh khhübşīratī na-dekhī ki us par 'āshiq hotā (or ho-jā,unn).
Mere pās ek paisā bhī nathā jo us faqir ko detāa (or dün).
Bāt itni thi ki mujh ko likh bhejte ki nassr $\bar{a}, \bar{i}$.

Tumhärā ko,i lihatt nahīn àyā jis kā main jawāb likhtā?
(7) I had composed nothing new, so how could I have sent you anything?
(8) How could I have had my books printed (as I had no money) ?
(9) He ought to have received the journal too, but up to the present he has not done so.
(10) How could I possibly have refrained from answering your letter?
(11) My description would be understood by you, only if you were here to see the Begams in the Fort walking about.

Kaun si fikr-i tāza ${ }^{1}$ thī $k i$ tumko likhtā?

Main kitäben kahān se chap$w \bar{a} t \bar{a}$ ?

Lāzim thā ki us ke pās bh̄̄ akhbār pahunch-jātā, magar is waqt taknahīn pahunch $\bar{a} .^{2}$

Kyā imkān thā ki jawāb nalikhtā?

Merā bayān jab tum par khultā ki tum yahān hote aur be-gamāt-i qil'a ko phirte chalte dekhte.

## XLV. THE VERBAL SUFFIX -W $\bar{A} L \bar{A}$

1. Though -wāla cannot be added to an adjective (vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 29, a), it is added to prepositions and adverbs, as: Pahārī kā upar-wālā makān, 'the house higher up on the hill;' Upar-wāla bayān, 'what has been mentioned above.'

Note. - It must be recollected that prepositions were originally nouns, and that such expressions as pahār ke nīche men ('at the bottom of the hill') are still used by the vulgar.
2. -Wālā can often be conveniently substituted for a genitive, as: Uskā sawārī kā ghorā or usk $\bar{a}$ sawārī-wāla ghora.
3. It sometimes indicates habit or continuance, as: Yih

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1 \text { Fikr-i tāza, tech. = a new poem. } \\
& 2 \text { Not pahunchā hai, as its arrival was expected. }
\end{aligned}
$$

dunyā girgit ki tarah rang badalne-wāt̄̄ hai, 'this world changes every moment like a chameleon;' Parhne-wālā lark $\bar{a}$, ' a studious boy.'
4. Sometimes it indicates a past act and sometimes one in the immediate ${ }^{1}$ future, as : Isk $\bar{a}$ bechne-wāla, 'the man who sold it,' ' the seller ; ' Marne-ucülā, ' the late,' and also 'about to die '.
5. It will be seen, therefore, that this verbal may be ambiguous: Sone-wālà bhiron ko na-jagānā chähiye for 'don't rouse sleeping hornets ${ }^{\prime 2}$ (i.e. ' let sleeping dogs lie') would be ambiguous, as it might mean 'hornets about to sleep'; the idiom, therefore, is sotī (hū, $\bar{i}$ ) bhiron ko na-jagāna $\bar{c}$ chähiye, which admits of no ambiguity. Dono larne-wäle is a common example of the ambiguous use of this participle.

## XLVI. CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE

1. (a) This participle is generally used when the action of the second verb not only takes place after the first verb but also depends on $i t$, as: Wuh mujhe dekh-kar rone lagā, 'he began to cry on seeing me.' This participle is adrantageously used when one verb is transitive and the other neuter. 'He saw me and then began to cry ' is us ne mujhe dekhā aur phir rone lag $\bar{a}$; in this sentence phir could not be omitted as the idea is that 'he first saw me and then after a little time began to cry'. Hence us ne meri taraf mulhätib hokar kahä, 'he addressed me and said,' is more idiomatic than meri taraf mukihiatitib hū, a aur bolā. (Note, too, that in this sentence, as the first verb $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ is neuter, bol $\bar{a}$, a verb that does not require $n e$, is preferred to kahā.)
${ }^{1}$ In Insān marne-vāla hai the idea is that death is always present, and the immediate future and not the remote future is intended. Qiyümat äne-wäl hai, because the Judgment Day is certain, that is, it is practically with us.
${ }^{2}$ Bhir, f. = hornet or wasp. In Behar birni $=$ wasp and birnā or haddë = a hornet.
(b) However, to avoid a series of conjunctive participles, the above rule is usually broken, finite verbs being substituted; but the finite verbs should be used where there are the longest pauses in the thought or the action, as: Main kitāb baghal men dabäkar ghar se nikalā, 'I put the book under my arm and left the house;' but Main ne kitāb baghal men debā, $\bar{\imath}$ aur chhari hāth men lekar ghar se nikalā, 'I put the book under my arm and taking up my stick quitted the house.'
2. The Conjunctive Participle cannot precede the substantive verb hai, etc., and thā, etc.
3. (a) When the Conjunctive Participle and the finite verb are both negative, the negative particle is prefixed to the finite verb only, as: Jo ko, $\bar{\imath}$ imtihhān ' pās' karke ț̄̄,ip rā,iting nasīkhegā usko is daftar men jagah na-milegī, 'no one will be employed in this office who does not pass the examination and learn typewriting' (lit. 'whoever having passed the examination does not learn typewriting, no place will be given to him in this office '). ${ }^{\text {. }}$
(b) If the participle only is negative and if it also implies a reason (i.e. if it expresses a reason and is bound up with the finite verb, as explained in 1 ), the negative particle may be prefixed, as: Main us kī bāt kuchh na-samajhkar chupkä ho-rahā, 'not understanding what he said I remained silent' (i.e. because I did not understand what he said-). The Conjunctive Participle with a negative always implies a reason.

With the above exception the negative cannot be prefixed to the Conjunctive Participle. 'Saying not a single word he turned and left the room' must be rendered Wuh mujhe ek lafz bhī kahe baghair munh pher-kar chalā gayā (' without saying a single word . . . ').
4. (a) The passive of the Conjunctive Participle is not used ; its place is taken by the active, as: Wuh häth bändhkar

[^25]lāyē gayā, 'he was brought bound' (i.e. 'they having bound his hands ${ }^{1}$ he was brought') ; Qil'a surang lagä-kar urāyā gayā, 'the fort was blown up.'
(b) If, however, the finite verb is neuter, the Conjunctive Participle also must be neuter, as : Wuh giriftār hokar āyāa (not lāyā gayā), 'he was arrested and brought;' Kaprā dhulkar $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$ or dhokar lāyā gayā, 'the clothes have come back from the wash.'
5. By a confusion of thought, not unnatural, the verb miln $\bar{a}$ is sometimes regarded as though it were the passive of a transitive verb, and such a sentence as Un ke hisse quria dālkar unhen mile, 'their shares were apportioned by lot,' is incorrectly written for Unke hissse qur'a dälkar unhen diye ga,e.
6. This participle repeated as below gives the force of continual repetition, i.e. of continual but not of continuous action, which latter has to be expressed by the Present Participle repeated ; vide Pres. Part., XLVII, 8 (a). Main ne ghore ko dāna khilä-khilä-ke motā kiyā, 'I fattened the horse by feeding it on grain for some time;' Phül tor-tor-ke main ne apne däman men jama' kiye, 'continually plucking flowers (either here and there or from one bush) I filled my skirt;' İnton ko jor-jor-ke main ne ek dīwär tayär kar-dī, 'adding brick to brick I built up a wall.'
7. Greaves in his 'Hindi Grammar' states that the relation of the Conjunctive Participle with the finite verb is $(a)$ temporal, (b) logical, (c) adverbial. Examples of this classification are given below. It will, however, be seen that this participle generally, perhaps always, can be resolved into a temporal clause.
(a) Temporal. It refers to a time either antecedent to or simultaneous with the finite verb, as: Main ne häth dho-kar

[^26]khān $\bar{a} k h \bar{a} y \bar{a}$, ' I washed my hands and ate my dinner ;' Us ne ro-kar kahā, 'he said with tears in his eyes;' Yih log namāz bhī gā-kar parhte hain, 'these people (a sect of Sufis) even sing their prayers.' (Note that $g \bar{a} n \bar{a}$ is an intransitive verb and does not admit of an object, except a cognate object, as gīt or ghazl gānā ; but not maṣnavī gānā or qaṣīda gānā.)

This participle also means 'after' (temporal), as: Ky $\bar{\alpha}$ $k_{0, \bar{\imath}}$ Isfahān jā-kar Hindustān men wāpas ātā hai? 'does anyone ever return to India after he has once seen Isfahan?' i.e. 'is there anyone who, having once gone (or when he has once gone) to Isfahan, afterwards returns to India?'; Sab milā-kar sau ek hū,e, 'after adding them all together they proved to be about a hundred.'
(b) Logical. Us ko zahr de-kar mār-dālāa = zahr dene se us ko mār-dā̀lā, 'they killed him by poison;' Us ne lakriyān bech-bech kar paise jama' kiye, 'he collected money by continually selling firewood' (by means of selling firewood). Here the finite verbs express the consequence of the participles.
(c) Adverbial. Kān lagā-kar suno, 'listen attentively' (having applied your ear, or when you have applied your ear, listen attentively); yaqin kar-ke jāno = yaqin jano, 'know assuredly;' khāss kar-ke, 'especially;' barh-kar, 'more;' wuh pet bhar-kar be-wuqūf hai, 'he is an utter fool ;' wuh der lagā-kar āyā, 'he came late;' le de-ke, 'in all;' marpit kar, ' with great labour or difficulty ;' us larke ne siwā,e ro-kar khāna māngne ke, aur kuchh na-kiy $\bar{a}$, 'the child did nothing but tearfully call for food.'
8. In 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 9, $c$, reference was made to the 'misrelated participle'. A study of the following idiomatically correct examples will reveal the fact that though grammatically the finite verb and the participle have not the same subject, logically they often have.

I couldn't help laughing when Tumhārā khatt parh - kar I read your letter. mujhe hānsi $\bar{a}, \bar{i}$.

I got fever on reaching home. Mujh ko ghar jä-ke bulihār $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$.
I was very glad to read your letter.
The culprit was arrested and brought here.

If they are compared, the difference between them will be proved to be slight.

If I should come across any pamphlet (on the subject), it will be bought and sent to you.
The court order having been written, the decision was given out.
A letter to the following Khatt men likh-kar äyā ki... purport was received.
9. The Participle may refer to the direct object of a verb, as: Wuh Mīr Sarfarāz Husain kī, sharmä-kar, änkhen nīche karnī aur muskarānā, Khudā kabhī mujh ko bhī wuh sürat dikhā,e, 'I do wish I could get a sight of Mir Sarfaraz Husain shyly casting down his eyes like that and smiling.'
10. (a) The following example from Platts is difficult to explain:-
${ }^{1}$ Kar-ke $=k i y a ̈$ jaikar, which is not idiom. The grammatical subject of a passive verb is the logical object of the action, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 23, $c$; hence this sentence $=$ 'they having arrested the culprit brought him '.
${ }^{2}$ Here the Passive is used for politeness to avoid the use of ' $I$ '.
${ }^{3}$ Here, though the participle and finite verb refer to different persons, they are regarded as the same party, i.e. members of the court.

At last, having made me Ālchir wa'da un chizon ko promise and swear that $I$ would return after leaving those things (at home), he pahunchā-kar mere ${ }^{1}$ phir āne kā le-kar, aur qasam khilā-kar, rulkssat kiyā. let me go.
(b) The danger of imitating the above construction is illustrated by the following: Hindū,on ko ek na,i` 'arž̄ pesh karke jawāb-i khhushk o sāf milā, ' the Hindus, on presenting a fresh petition, received a rebuff;' this is wrong, as it would signify that the petition was given to the Hindus. In Mujhe ghar jāke bulkhär hū, $\bar{a}$ there can be no ambiguity as there is only one person. Similarly, Jab tak tum ko imtihän pās karke kisī bare 'uhde par muqarrar hote hū,e na-dekh-lenge-,' until I see you pass your examination and appointed to a good post I-,' cannot, owing to the position of tum ko, be misunderstood, but Jab tak imtihān pās karke tum ko kisī bare 'uhde par muqarar hote hui,e na-dekh-lenge-is ambiguous, as the Conjunctive Participle might refer either to the subject or the object of the finite verb.
11. In orders, requests, and answers to requests the termination ke or kar of this participle is preferably dropped, as: Rotī kh $\bar{a}-\bar{a}, o$, 'go and eat and then come back;' Ky $\bar{a}$ main roṭ $k h \bar{h}-\bar{a}, \bar{u} n$ ? ' may I go and get my food and then
 get something to eat and then come back;' (Guest) Achchhā main roṭ̃ khā-ātā hūn, 'all right, I will ' (vide also Aorist 8 and notes).
12. The following is an idiomatic use of karke: Main tumhen kyā karke likhūn-Munshī, Maulavī, Muftī, Khwäja $y \bar{a}$ Shaikh ? 'how am I to style you in the address-Munshi,
${ }^{1}$ Mere should come before pahunchā-kar, and phir äne $k \bar{u}$ may be taken as an equivalent of a finite verb to the first clause of a compound sentence. Amended, the sentence runs: Alkhir mujh se yih wa'da lekar aur qasam khilā-kar (ki main un chīzon ko pahunchā kar phir $\bar{a}, \bar{u} n)$ rukhhsat kiyā.

Maulavi, etc., or Shaikh ?' Bāre Khudā Khudā karke merä safar tamàm hū, $\bar{a}$, 'at last with great difficulty (or somehow or other) my journey was finished;' Main 'Alī 'Alī karke us daryā men kūd-parã, ' calling on 'Ali I jumped into the river.' Eke ek karke, 'one by one;' but In ädmiyon ko ek ek karke ${ }^{1}$ mār-dālo is idiomatically 'kill these men to a man '.'

Remark.-Occasionally karke is pleonastic, as: Assl men merā nām Muhammad Balhㄴh hai lekin Mammū karke mash,hür hün (or Mammiü Mammü mash, hür hün), 'in reality my name is Muḅammad Bakhsh, but I am known as Mammū ;' Auron kī nisbat karke, 'compared with others.'
13. (a) The participle ho-kar sometimes has the force of 'although', as : Bādshāh ho-kar boriyā par soyā kartā thā, 'although a king he habitually slept on a mat;' Tum Musalmän ho-kar sharāb pīte ho? 'do you, a Muslim, drink?' 'although you are a Muslim you still drink?' Tum ko itne bare ho-kar sharm nahin äti? 'at your age and not ashamed?'
(b) Note the difference in meaning in the following:-

I will go to Bombay vid Main Jabalpür se hokar Jubblepore, or Bamba,i jā,ūngā.
I will halt a day or so in Jubblepore on my way to Bombay.
I will go to Bombay via Main Jabalpūr hokar (withJubblepore without halting. I will halt a day or so in Jubblepore on my way to out se) Bamba, ī jā,ūngā. Main Jabalpür (se) hotā hū, $\bar{a}$ Bamba,i jāu,ūngā. Bombay.

## XLVII. THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE

1. The Present (girtā or girt $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ and kart $\bar{a}$ or kart $\bar{a}$ $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ ) and the Past (girā or girā hū, $\bar{a}$ and kiyā or kiyā $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ )
[^27]Participles are used as (1) nouns, (2) verbal nouns, (3) adjectives, (4) adverbs, (5) participles with the force of verbs, and (6) compounds with other verbs. Their proper use when participles is rather intricate and puzzling even to natives, who not infrequently use them improperly. The grammars, too, are not always correct. The participles are perhaps correctly used only in Delhi and Lucknow.
2. The Present Participle is used as a noun or a verbal noun. If a preposition be added, $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ must be omitted. Examples-Sote se, 'from sleep,' 'from sleeping;' din charhte charhte $=$ din charhne ke waqt, 'about 7 or 8 o'clock' (i.e. while the sun was on its upward course and not crossing the sky ${ }^{1}$ ) ; din dübte düubte, 'before sunset;' sunte ke säth $=$ sunte $h \bar{\imath}=$ sunne ke sāth, 'immediately on hearing this;' mere hote (hū,e), 'while I am here,' or 'while I am living '; mere rahte (not hü,e) tak, 'as long as I am here;' hāth pā,on ke hote (or rahte), 'whilst in the possession of hands and feet.'

Remark.-In such sentences as Martā ( $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ ) ky $\bar{a}$ nakartā? 'what will not a dying man try?' martā is an adjective, agreeing with $\bar{a} d m \bar{\imath}$, 'understood;' you cannot say marte ne kah $\bar{a}$; the idiom is marne-wäle ne kah $\bar{a}$.
3. (a) The inflected present participle with $h \bar{\imath}$, indicating simultaneity, is sometimes called the adverbial participle. It may have the same or a different subject from the finite verb, and may itself be either a substantive or a verb, as: Hiukm milte h̄ main rawāna hū, $\bar{a}$, 'I started as soon as I got the order;' Mere ${ }^{2} h u k m$ dete $h \bar{\imath}$ wuh chalā-gayā, ' as soon as I gave the order he went away ;' Mujhe, sunte hī, yih kiliyāl $\bar{a} y \bar{a} k i-$, ' as soon as I heard this, this thought came into my mind that--;' Mere jägte hī pān̄̄ khul-gayā, 'as soon as I awoke the rain stopped;' Mere (usko) dekhte hī wuh

[^28]$u t h-b a i t h \bar{a}$, ' as soon as I saw him he sat up;' Mujhe ${ }^{1}$ dekhte hi chor bhäg-ga,e, 'as soon as the thieves saw me they fled.'
(b) The $h \bar{i}$ is sometimes omitted, as : Main ne usko dekhte (hī) kahā ki yih culmī bad-mu'àsh hai, 'as soon as I saw him I said he was a blackguard.'
(c) This adverbial participle with the Future Tense signifies 'gradually', as: Yih bīmārī jāte hī jā,egī, 'this disease will go away gradually ' = $j \bar{a} t e ~ j a ̄ t e ~ j a \bar{a}, e g \bar{\imath}$.
(d) Chhuitte hĩ is an idiom for 'all of a sudden'.
(e) In the following similar idioms the $h \bar{\imath}$ does not express simultaneity : Mere dekhte hī dekhte wuh paidā bhī hū,a, jawān bhī hū, $\bar{a}$, aulàd-wāl̄̄̄ bhī hū, $\bar{a}$, aur marā bhī, 'during my memory he was born, grew up, became a father, and died ;' dekhte hī dekhte expresses continuity.

Remark.-The emphatic particle $h \bar{\imath}$ can of course follow the present participle when used as an ordinary adjective in apposition, etc., as: Usko sotā $h \bar{\imath}$ chhor do, 'leave him just as he is, asleep.'
4. When the present participle is a qualifying adjective and precedes its noun (not when it is in apposition to a no..n or expresses state), it agrees with its noun in gender a.d number. H $\bar{u}, \bar{a}$ can be added, except in certain idiomatic
 bhägtī (hū, ī) fauj, 'a fleeing army;' boltū hū, $\bar{\imath}$ totiz, 'a talking parrot;' marte dam tak, 'till my dying breath,' 'till I die.'

Remark. - Sometimes the substantive is understood, as $r \bar{a} h$-chaltā, 'a wayfarer,' for rāh chaltã hū, $\bar{a} \bar{a} d m \bar{u}:$ Larion ke pichhe bhägton ke age (of a coward), 'in the rear of the fighters, in the van of the fleers, a laggard in fighting, a leador in flight ;' vide Remark to 2.
5. With transitive verbs always, and with intransilive sometimes, the noun of agency takes the place of the presont participle when used as a noun, as: Mere ihsän karne-wäls ${ }^{1}$ Mujhe is the object of delhte.
dost ne yih mujh se kaha $\bar{a}$ th $\bar{a}-$, 'my kind friend said to me-;' Us jāne-wāle àdmī se pūchho ki kahān jātā hai, 'ask that passer-by where he is going to.'

Remark. - Marne-wālā (Rājā) idiomatically means the 'late, deceased (Raja, etc.);' but jān ba-lab Rājā or Rājā jo gor men pā,on latkā,e hū,e hai, 'the dying Raja,' or vulgarly wuh Rājā jo dam tor-rahā hai or jo marne kināre (or marne ke kinãre) hai.
6. As adverbs ': Hote hote, 'gradually ;' subh hote (or hote $h \bar{i})$, 'at dawn, ' 'as soon as it was morning or dawn.'
7. Up to the present this participle has presented little difficulty. The difficulty of the participles, past and present, lies in their participial use when they express the state of the subject or object and have the force of verbs. In 'that singing woman', 'singing' is an adjective ; but in 'that woman, singing as she went', or 'that woman departed singing', the participle 'singing' has all the force of a verb.
8. (a) When the present participle is repeated for emphasis, etc., it is inflected, i.e. constructed adverbially or absolutely, and $h \bar{u}, e$ cannot be added, as : Ḍarte ḍarte pās gayā (or ḍartā $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ pass gay $\bar{a}$ ), 'I approached, fearing the while ;' Shik $\bar{a} r$ khelte khelte thak-gayā, 'I got tired with continuous hunting, shooting,' etc.; Koshish karte karte thak-gayā, 'I became wearied with my continuous efforts;' but Koshish kar kar ke thak-gay $\bar{a}$, 'I became wearied by my continual efforts (on different occasions) ;' Mere süra-e Yā Sīn parhte hī paṛhte usk $\bar{a}$ dam nikal gay $\bar{a}$, ' while I was still repeating the chapter Yā Sīn he died.'
(b) Sometimes a verb is used with a cognate participle present repeated, as: Main pahār kī chontĩ tak charte charte charh-gay $\bar{a}$, 'going on ascending I at last reached the hillsummit;' Kishtī dübte dübte dūb-ga, $\bar{i}$, 'the ship sank by degrees.'

[^29](c) If, however, the present participle is not repeated and refers to the subject of an active verb, not being the agent with $n e$, it agrees with its subject, and $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ should be added, as: Main shahr men hanstā hū, $\bar{a}$ pahunch $\bar{a}$, ' I arrived in the city laughing;' but Main hanste hanste shahr men pahunchā, 'I arrived with ease at the city ; ' Shikār kheltā hü, ä shahr men pahunchā ; Yīh kahtī hū, $\bar{\imath}$ chalì ga,i, 'she went away saying this; ' but Yih kahti chali ga, $\bar{i}$, ' she went on saying this،' ${ }^{\text {' }}$
(d) If, however, the finite verb be in the passive, the participle may agree either with the grammatical subject or the logical subject, as: Main rūpīya churātā (hū, $\bar{a}$ ) pakaṛā gay $\bar{a}$, 'I was caught while stealing money,' or Main rūpīya churāte (hū,e) (men) pakarā gay $\bar{a}$, ' I was caught in the act of stealing money.'
9. (a) When the present participle indicates the state of the object, the object will usually be followed by the postposition ko, and one would expect, therefore, that the rules for the concord of adjectives in such cases would apply. This, however, is not the case.
(b) When the present participle indicates state and refers to a direct object with ko, it may either be constructed absolutely with or without $h \bar{u}, e$, or it may follow the rule of the concord of adjectives and be, with or without $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$, in the masculine, as: Main ne us ko d̦aurte ( $h \bar{u}, e$ ) dekhā or main ne us ko d̦aurtā (hū, $\bar{a}$ ) dekhā. But with some verbs the inflected form only is used, as after sunnā.
(c) If, however, the object is not followed by ko, the participle may either agree with it or be constructed absolutely; as: Main ne us bastī men bijlī girtī (hū, $\bar{i})$ delihi, or girte (hü,e) delihiz, 'I saw a thunderbolt fall in that village.'
10. When the Present Participle predicates something of an agent with $n e$, it must be constructed absolutely with hü,e. In such cases special attention must be paid to the position of the participle, otherwise it may not be clear whether the participle
${ }^{1}$ Yih kahkar chali ga, $\bar{i}=$ 'she said this and then went away'.
refers to the agent or to the object. If the participle refers to the agent it is better to place it before the agent, and hri,e must be added. If it refers to the object it should follow the object, and hū,e may be omitted. 'Aurat ne chalte' hū,e $k a h \bar{a} k i-$, 'the woman said on departure-' (but Chalti $h \bar{u}, \bar{\imath}^{2}$ 'aurat ne kah $\bar{a}-$, ' the moving ${ }^{2}$ woman, the woman moving about, said-'). In the preceding there can be no ambiguity, but Chalte hī,e 'aurat ne mujh se kahā may mean either the ' woman said on her' or 'on my departure'; 'Aurat ne chalte hū, e mujh se kahā would generally mean 'the woman as she was departing said to me-'.

Main ne jāgte hū,e dekh $\bar{a}$ may mean (1) 'I saw him while $I$ was awake', (2) 'I saw him while he was awake', (3) 'I saw him waking up'; but main ne jāgte dekhā can have the last two meanings only. In main ne us ko daurte ( $h \bar{u}, c$ ) dekh $\bar{a}$ the position of the participle shows that it refers to the object, but main ne daurte hū,e us ko dekh $\bar{a}$ is ambiguous, as the participle may refer to either the agent or the object, but in daurte hū,e main ne us ko dekhā the participle can refer only to the agent.
11. If the participle can agree neither with the subject nor the direct object it is constructed absolutely, as: Mujhe is ghar men rahte ( $h \bar{u}, e$ ) (or $\bar{a}, e ~ h \bar{u}, e)$ do sāl guzre, 'I have been in this house now two years;' Mujhe sārā din talāsh karte guzrā, 'I spent the whole day looking for it;' Mujh ko khānnā pakāte ek ghant $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ (or guzrā), 'I have been cooking the meal for an hour past;' $\bar{A} p$ ko hamesha shikär khelte rahnā achchhā nahīn hai, 'you should not spend all your time in sport.'
12. (a) The inflected present participle before darnā is idiomatically used for the Infinitive in English, as: Jāte (hū,e) dartā hūn, 'I am afraid to go there.'

[^30](b) With sharm ànā, 'to be ashamed,' and dar lagnā, 'to be afraid,' the participle may have two significations, as: Mujhe wahān jāte (hū,e) dar lagtā hai, 'I am afraid to go there,' or 'I fear while or when going there'.
18. The following are idioms: Yih kām hotā nazar nahīn $\bar{a} t \bar{a}$, 'this is not likely to be done ; ' Mujhe yihi kahte (hu,$e)$ ban-ätā hai ki wuh üllū kē patth $\bar{a}^{1} h a i$, 'I cannot help saying he's an ass ' (lit. ' a young owl').
14. For the idiomatic uses of the Present Participle prefixed to $j \bar{a} n \bar{a}$, vide verbs compounded with participles, XLIX, 8.
15. Examples-
(1) You came home while I Merejāgte (hū,e) men tum ghar was awake.
$$
\bar{a}, e .
$$
(2) After lying awake a Jāgte jägte ākhir so-gayā. long time I at last fell asleep.
(3) Fatima returned by way Fātima ${ }^{2}$ bāzār (se) hotī hū, $\bar{\imath}$ of the bazar.
(4) I saw the woman in the $w \bar{a} p \bar{a} s \bar{a}, \bar{i}$.
Main ne 'aurat ko jāgte dekhā. act of waking up (or I saw the woman awake, not asleep).
(5) She was afraid to s@y Yihkahte (hiu,e) dari. this.
(6) She ran off while saying Wuh yih kahtī hū, $\bar{\imath} b h a \bar{q} \bar{\imath}$. this.
(7) While I'm still living Mere rahte tum kyūn düsron (or am here) why should you look for others' favours (or be dependent on others)?
${ }^{1}$ Patthā, m., and patthi, f., generally the young of pigeons and fowls; squab, pullet.
${ }^{2}$ Fattū is a corruption for Fatah Muhammad or Fâtima. In the Panjab the latter is sometimes Fatūu.
(8) I am afraid to tell you. Kahte (hū,e) dairtā hūn.
(9) I saw a flock of cranes grazing in a field.

Main ne ek kulang kā ghol khet men charte (hū,e) dekhā.
(10) I saw a jackal run into that sugar-cane lehet.
(11) I saw a jackal running about in the sugar-cane.
(12) I saw a singing woman Main ne domn $\bar{\imath}^{2}$ ko nāchte, dancing, singing, and playing a guitar.
(13) He has never seen a Us ne kabhī ghore kā na'l horse shod.
(14) Don't you feel ashamed to do this?
(15) Are you not afraid to go up in a balloon? (also are you not afraid while up in a balloon?).
(16) As far as I know.
(17) As far as I am able.

Main ne ek gīdar ko us ganne ke khet men ḍaur-kar jāte ( $h \bar{u}, e)$ dekh $\bar{a}$.
Main ne dekhā ki ek gīdar us ganne ke khet men daurā $j \bar{a}-r a h \bar{a} h a i .{ }^{1}$ gāte aur tārā bajāte $(h \bar{u}, e)^{3}$ dekhā. bandhte (hū,e) (or bāndhte) ${ }^{4}$ nahīn dekhā hai.
Tum ko yih kām karte (hū,e) sharm nahīn ātū?
Tum ko ghubāre par urte dar nahīn lagtā?

Mere jänte-bhar (vulg.) or mere jānte men.
Mere bhar-sak ${ }^{5}$ (vulg. for apme maqdür bhar).

[^31](18) Come to me to-morrow at ten minutes to 12 .
(19) The weakness will go $Z^{\prime} u f$ jāte $h \bar{\imath} j \bar{a}, e g \bar{a}$ (or jāte away gradually.
(20) Though in the possession of eyes you were blind (or else you pretended to be blind).

Kal bärah baje men (or vulg. ko) das minat ${ }^{1}$ rahte hū,e mere pās ā,o.
jäte jā,egā).
Ankhon ke ${ }^{2}$ hote (or rahte) tum andhe ban-ga,e.

## XLVIII. PAST PARTICIPLE

1. It is used as-
(a) A noun: Kahe se, 'by order;' jawān hū,e par, 'on growing up;' munh lagā,e se wuh is qadr sholkh hū, $\bar{a}$, 'he has become so impertinent through your familiarity, ' through your being so familiar with him;' mãnge kā tattur, 'a borrowed pony. ${ }^{3}$

Remark.-Mū, $\bar{a}$ ( $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ ), 'dead,' is an adjective agreeing with $\bar{a} d m \bar{u}$, understood: Soyā aur mū, $\bar{a}$ barābar hotā hai, ' $a$ sleeping and a dead man are alike.' $M \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ is only a substantive when used by women as a term of abuse, as : Us mü,e se kaho ki yahān se dür ${ }^{\text {b }}$ dafa' ho-jū,e, 'tell that blackguard to quit.'
(b) With the prepositions be, baslhair, and bin, ' without,' the inflected past participle (with or without hu,e) is used without ke, as: Baghair mariz ko dekhe (hū,e), or mariz ko dekhe (hū,e) baghair (= marīẹ ko dekhne ke baghair), 'without seeing the patient.'
(c) It will be seen that the Infinitive can, in such cases, be
${ }^{1}$ In the Panjab das minat kam bērah baje.
${ }^{2}$ Or Ânkhen hote.
${ }^{3}$ Manngù hā, $\bar{a}$ is not the idiom.
${ }^{4}$ Hence the vulgar verb durdurānā, 'to say dür ho-jä,o': Main voahän gayä lekin us-ne mujhe durdurä-diyä, for dhatä batānä or dhutkàr denā.
substituted for the participle: $\bar{A} d h \bar{\imath} ~ r a ̄ t ~ g u z r e ~ t a k, ~ ' t i l l ~ m i d-~$ night,' is the same as $\bar{a} d h \bar{h} r a \bar{t}$ ke guzarne tak.

Remark.-When the past participle takes the place of an infinitive, $h \bar{u}, e$ cannot be added, except after or before baghair, etc. In mujhe (not mere ${ }^{1}$ ) $\bar{a}, e$ hū,e ek ghant $\bar{a} \bar{u} \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ the participle is not a noun.
2. (a) As an adjective, qualifying or predicative: Dabe $p \bar{a}, o n(s e)$, ' with silent footfall; ' dabī zabān (se), ' with bated breath,' i.e. 'fearfully'; ulte pā,on (se) phirā, 'he retraced his steps;' $\bar{a}, e \operatorname{din} k \bar{a} k \bar{a} m$, ' the work that comes every day,' 'daily work;' dastar-khwwann bichh $\bar{a}(h \bar{u}, \bar{a})$ thā, 'the tablecloth was spread;' sahn men bahut se patte pare (hū,e) hain, 'the courtyard is full of leaves.'
(b) As a rule $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ can be added (except in adverbial phrases like the above), as: $\quad \bar{u} \bar{u} b t \bar{\imath}(h \bar{u}, \bar{\imath}) k i s h t \bar{\imath}$, 'the sinking ship;' $\bar{a} n k h o n\left(k \bar{\imath}^{3}\right)$ dekh $\bar{u}(h \bar{u}, \bar{\imath}) b \bar{a} t$, ' an eye-witnessed matter.'
3. (a) When the past participle of a transitive verb expresses state, it is always constructed absolutely, with or without $h \bar{u}, e$, as: Kurti pahne (hī,e) $\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$, 'she came wearing a jacket;' Mujhe roṭi khā,e (hū,e) tīn din guzre, 'I have not eaten for three days;' Wuh bahāna kiye hū,e thā,' 'he was pretending all that time;' Wuh hathkarī ${ }^{5}$ pahne hū,e (or pahnā,e hü, $e^{6}$ ) pesh kiy $\bar{a}$ gay $\bar{a}$, 'he was produced handcuffed.'
(b) The conjunctive participle indicates that an act was completed, as : Kurtī pahin-kar $\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$, 'she first put on a jacket and then came;' but the past participle indicates a state,

[^32]as: Kurtī pahne hū,e $\bar{a}, \bar{i}$, 'she came in a state of wearing a jacket;' but Kurti pahinti$h \bar{u}, \bar{i} \bar{a}, \bar{i}$, 'she came while in the act of putting on her jacket.' Sometimes the conjunctive and the past participles are interchangeable, as : $P \bar{a}, o n$ phailā-kar sonā or pā,on phailā,e (hū,e) son $\bar{a}$, 'to sleep at ease.'

Remark.-It will have been noticed that the uninflected past participles of transitive verbs have sometimes a passive sense, as: Merā kiyā (hū, $\bar{a})$, 'what has been done by me;' us $k \bar{a}$ banay $\bar{a}(h \bar{u}, \bar{a})$, 'made by him;' but liye $h \bar{u}, e$, trans., ' taking.'
4. (a) When the past participle of an intransitive verb is repeated for emphasis, etc., it may be inflected as in the case of the present participle, or may not be: Main dhūp men baithe baithe (or baithā baith $\bar{a}$ ) garm $\bar{a}-g a y \bar{a},{ }^{1}$ ' I sat in the sun till I became warm.'
(b) The following are idioms: Tum do baras ke ga,e ga,e $\overline{a j}$ mujh se milne $\bar{a}, e$ ho, 'after having absented yourself two years you have to-day come to see me;' but Main do baras $k \bar{a}$ gayä gayā (not ga,e ga,c) kal is shahr men āyā hūn. Yih 'auraten do baras $k i \operatorname{ga,i}$ ga,i-. It will be noticed that in these examples gay $\bar{a}$ is not used in its literal sense.
5. If the subject of a finite intransitive verb and of a past participle is the same, the participle with or without $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ agrees with the subject, as: Wuh larkā apne naukar ke kandhe par baith $\bar{a}(h \bar{u}, \bar{a}) \bar{a} y \bar{a}$, ' the boy was brought mounted on his servant's shoulder;' Larkī chār-pā,i par leṭī (hū,ī̀) la, $\bar{\imath} g a, \bar{i}$, 'the girl was brought stretched on a charpa,e.'
6. If an intransitive past participle refers to the agent with $n e$, it is inflected, and hū,e must be added, as: Main ne lete hū,e tum ko yih lihatt likh $\bar{a}=$ main ne lete lete yih khatt tum ko likhā.

Remark. - The past participles of transitive verbs are alwsys inflected, vide 3.
${ }^{1}$ Garminei better than garm honä for the sun.
${ }^{2}$ Better to insert $h u \bar{u}, \tilde{\imath}$.
7. (a) If the participle is intransitive and refers to an object with the postposition ko, it follows the rule of adjectives and is in the masculine uninflected form, and $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ may be added or omitted, as: Main ne us ghore ko mara $(h \bar{u}, \bar{a})$ p $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$, ' I found the horse dead.'
(b) If the object is without ko the participle will agree with its noun as in the case of ordinary adjectives, as: Main ne ek chiryā mari hī, $\bar{\imath}$ dekhi, 'I saw a bird dead;' Main ne ek do-ann $\bar{\imath}$ pari $\bar{\imath}$ ( $h \bar{u}, \bar{\imath}$ ) p $\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$, ' I found a two-anna bit lying on the ground.'

Remark.-If the participle is transitive it will be constructed absolutely, vide 3, as: Main ne usko kurtī pahne (hū,e) dekhā; main ne ek larkī wuh kurtī pahne hī̀,e dekh̄̄.

## 8. Examples-

(1) Without going upstairs. Be upar ga,e (hū,e).
(2) Without going on the Be masjid ki chhat par ga,e roof of the mosque, you won't be able to see the new moon.
(3) He is not under my Wuh merekahe (or kahne) men control.
(4) You had only left a short time when my house caught fire.
(5) His deeds will one day rise up and oppose him.
(6) In time of needing, when Waqt pare par, wuh dost he has anything to gain ban-jā,egà. by it, he will become friendly.
(7) Why do you want to go Itne din rahe tum kyün ghar home so early in the day? jān $\bar{a}$ chāhte ho?
${ }^{1}$ Not used in plural.
(8) I have been sitting here since about 9 p.m.
(9) Unless I come myself it won't be done properly.
(10) I have been mistaking Zaid for Bakr (up till this moment or that moment).
(11) The girl has eaten Larkī kal is waqt k $\bar{a}^{3}$ khä,e nothing since this time hū, hai. yesterday.
(12) Great or small, none has eaten anything since this time yesterday.
(18) How long have you been here?
(14) It began to rain a short time before morning.
(15) I started on my journey a little before dawn.
(16) He was drunk.
(17) However much I reason with him he won't listen to reason.

Pahar rät ga,e se main yahān baiṭuà (hū, ä) hūn.
Be mere à,e (hū,e) kām naniklegā.
Main Zaid ko Bakr samjhe $h \bar{u}, e^{1}$ thā. ${ }^{2}$

Chhote bare kal is waqt $k \hat{a}^{3}$ khü,e hū,e hain.

Tum ko yahān à,e hū,e kitnū der hū,, $\bar{\imath}$ ?
Kuchh rāt rahe (se ${ }^{4}$ ) pānū barasnā shurià hū, à.
Kuchh rät rahe (not se ${ }^{\text {4 }}$ ) main apne safar par rawāna $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$.
Wuh sharäb pìye hū,e thā.
Mere samjhā,e [se] wuh kisī taralu nahin samajhne kā.

[^33](18) The doctor left without seeing the patient.
(19) He left without saying good-bye (or asking permission to go).
(20) Unless I come that cannot be managed.
(21) He has become imper tinent by your being so familiar with him.
(22) Why have you come so

Marīz ke dekhe (ke) ba-ghair dāktar chalā-gayā.
Wuh mujh se be kahe sune ${ }^{1}$ chalā-gayā.

Be mere $\bar{a}, e\left(h u \bar{u}, e^{2}\right)$ wuh $k \bar{a} m$ na-ho-sakeg $\bar{a}$.
Tumhāre munh lagā,e se wuh bahut shokh ho-gayā hai. late at night?
9. By the rules given explain the following four sentences, which are all correct and have the same meaning :-
(1) Ham usko apne sāth lete $\bar{a}, e$ hain.
(2) Ham usko apné sāth liye ( $h \bar{u}, e) \bar{a}, e$ hain.
(3) Main usko apne sāth let $\bar{a}$ $\bar{a} y \bar{a} h u ̄ n$.
(4) Main usko apne sath liye $h \bar{u}, e \bar{a} y \bar{a} h \bar{u} n$.
For, 'We are on the point of Ham halāk hū,e jāte hain perishing.' (vide $\mathrm{X}, \mathbf{2}$ ).

## XLIX. COMPOUND VERBS (WITH PARTICIPLES)

1. There is another class of not very common compound ${ }^{3}$ verbs formed by prefixing an inflected past participle of a transitive verb (without $h \bar{u}, e$ ) to den $\bar{a}$, len $\bar{a}, d \bar{a} l n \bar{a}$, and $j \bar{a} n \bar{a}$.

[^34]2. With past participles of transitive verbs prefixed to denä or lena, the usual signification is to be on the point of doing a thing, as: Khānāa lā,e detā hūn, 'I am now just going to bring dinner,' but Khānāa lā-detā hūn, 'I'll go and get the dinner;' Jo bāten wahān hū, $\bar{\imath}$ hain, main tum se kahe-detā hinn, 'I will now just tell you what happened there,' but Main tum se kah detā hūn ki uskĩ dostī par bharosa nakarnä, ' I tell you once for all not to trust his friendship.'
3. With past participles of transitive verbs prefixed to $d \bar{a} l n \bar{a}$, the signification or the meaning is either to be on the point of doing or sometimes to be continually doing, as : Ghorā rassi tore-dāltā hai, 'the horse threatens every moment to break its rope.'
4. With past participles of transitive verbs prefixed to $j \bar{a} n \bar{a},{ }^{1}$ the sense is properly continuous action, as: Jab tak tum yahän baithe-raho ${ }^{1} k o, \bar{i} n a-k o, i ̀ k i t a ̈ b ~ p a r h e ~ j a, o ~(=~ p a r h t e ~$ raho, vide 8) ; but parhte jā,o, ' continually read,' i.e. 'while you remain here keep yourself continually amused by reading something'; Is kitāb ko parhā karo $=$ ' read this book often, continually,' but Is kitäb ko parhe-jā,o, or parhte raho, 'read this book continuously, without a break; ' Is dawā ko do daf'a roz piläyā karo, 'give this medicine twice daily' (every day as a habit), but $\bar{A} d h e ~ a ̀ d h e ~ g h a n t e ~ p a r ~ d a w a ̄ ~ p i l a ̄, e ~ j a \bar{a}, o$, ' keep on giving this medicine every half-hour' (perhaps only for one day).

Remark.-It will thus be seen that parhe-jänā and parhte$j \bar{a} n \bar{a}$ differ slightly, but that parhe-jäna and parhte-rahnāa are the same. In pilā,e-jānā it is obvious that the meaning cannot be 'giving to drink without any break', so the verb means 'in quick succession'.
5. The Past Participle of rahnā, with or without $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ or hu,e, may be added to transitive or intransitive verbs; but with transitive verbs the participle is inflected and with

[^35]intransitive not inflected (except in the plural, etc.), as: Jab tak main laut na-āyā wuh mere ghore kī lagām pakare (or pakare hū,e) raha, 'he continued holding my horse's bridle till I returned ;' Wuh mere intizūar men do ghante tak baithā (or baith $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ rahā), 'he remained waiting for me two hours.'
6. Similarly, to rakhn $\bar{a}$ (the transitive of $r a h n \bar{a}$ ), when used as a servile verb, an inflected past participle, with or without hū,e, may be prefixed, as: Roke-rakhnā or roke hiu,e rakhn $\bar{a}$, 'to continue to keep in control' (of one already in control), but roke-rahnā or roke hū,e rahna, 'to check,' 'keep in check' (one who may or may not already be under control), and rok-rakhna, 'to stop,' 'not to allow to go.'
7. Rakhe-rahnā (or rakhe hū,e rahnā), 'to continue to keep,' is transitive, but rakh $\bar{a}-r a h n \bar{a}$ (or rakh $\bar{a}-h \bar{u}, \bar{a} \operatorname{rahna} \bar{a}$ ), 'to remain continually,' is intransitive.

Remark.-The past participle can also be prefixed to the substantive verb to indicate continued state; if the verb is transitive the participle is inflected, if intransitive it is uninflected, as: Wuh hāth men ek kitāb liye hī,e thī, 'she had a book in her hand,' 'she was in a state of carrying a book;' Main soya $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a} t h \bar{a}$, 'I was in a state of sleeping ' $=$ the Imperfect in one of its senses only ; Wuh 'aurat so, $\bar{\imath} h \bar{u}, \bar{\imath}$ thī. As samajhn $\bar{a}$ is both transitive and intransitive, main samjh $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ th $\bar{a}$ and main samjhe hi,$e ~ t h \bar{a}$, etc., are both correct.
8. The present participle prefixed to $j \bar{a} n \bar{a}$ signifies (1) continually doing, doing on and off ; (2) or, in the Imperative, beginning to do, of a number; (3) or, it gives the force of the Conjunctive Participle, as: (1) Jab tak bukhār rahe, do do ghante par yih dawā pilāte jā,o, 'as long as the fever lasts continue to give this medicine every two hours;' (2) Ab khāna khāte jā,o, 'now all of you begin to eat;' (3) Daftar jāte hū,e mujh se milte (or milkar) jā,o, 'see me, call on me, on your way to office.'

It indicates either progressive increase or the concomitance of two acts. You cannot say, Yih kiläb har waqt parhte-jä,o ; for parhte-jū,o substitute parhte-raho. But it would, however, be right to say, Kitäb parhte-jā,o jab tak-. Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 12, $b$, and Lesson 14, $b$.

Before jānā and rahnā the present participle of a transitive verb is inflected, but of an intransitive uninflected, as : Khiläte-jànā or khiläte-rahnä, 'go on feeding at stated intervals,' i.e. with breaks (but usually the difference between $j \bar{a} n \bar{a}$ and $r a h n \bar{a}$ in such verbs is that the former signifies continual action with breaks, but the latter generally continuous action without a break; in such a verb, however, as khiläte-rahn $\bar{a}$ it is obvious that the latter meaning is inadmissible).

Sotā-jāna and sotā-rahnā, 'to continue sleeping.'
Chal $\bar{a}-j a \bar{n} \bar{a}$ is 'to go away', but chale-j $\bar{a} n \bar{a}$, 'to go along with.' Chale-jā,o may be imperative of either of these two verbs. Chār chār ghante tak barābar chale-jānā āsān nahīn hai, 'to keep on travelling for hours at a stretch is no easy matter,' but Tum ko yahān se chalā-jānā chāhiye, 'you must go away from here.'

Remark.-As the Infinitive when used for an Imperative is polite, it is considered a plural; thus, chale-jäna would in this case be used for either.
9. Vide also XLI, 10, 11.
10. Examples-
(1) This anxiety threatens to kill me.
(2) This house threatens to overwhelm me with gloom (lit. threatens to bite me ).
(3) Her dead memory Us kī yād mujhe māre-dāltī threatens to kill me. hai.
(4) I am just about to erase this word now in your presence.
(5) The stabbing pain in my Pānw ke warm kī țis hosh swollen foot is nearly driving me mad.
(6) I'm just going to give it to him.
(7) I'm just going to take it from him.
(8) I'm just going to eat it. Is ko $a b h \bar{\imath} k h \bar{a}, e-l e t \bar{a} h u ̄ n$.
(9) My book remained lying on the table for two days.
(10) He kept his hand placed on the table.
(11) Keep your finger, without removing it, on this spot, on the vein.
(12) Please begin to come inside (to a number of guests).
11. Another class of compounds is formed by prefixing the uninflected past participle of an intransitive verb to a servile intransitive verb. In some cases $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ can be added to the participle and in some cases not, and the past participle has the signification of an English present participle, but this form of compound is not always admissible.
12. Verbs with parn $\bar{a}$ as a servile, and the following, do not admit of $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ being added. Parn $\bar{a}$, with an uninflected participle, is intransitive and has the same signification as the transitive $d \bar{a} \ln \bar{a}$ with the inflected participle, vide 3.

[^36]To run about, wander about Daurū-phirnū. running.
To go away. Chalã-jänã.
To come along.
To wander aimlessly.
To fly round, fly about, circle Urä-phirnã.
in the air.
To threaten to fall.
To threaten to jump.
To threaten to overflow or Ublä-parnā.
spill (not to boil over).
The river is rising up, in a Daryā charhā-ätā hai. state ${ }^{1}$ of flood.
My heart is overflowing, in Merāadil umdàa-àtā hai. a state ${ }^{1}$ of overflowing.
13. Märā-parnā, 'to be ruined, undone,' is an exception; the participle is from a transitive verb, and parnä gives some idea of threatening. Parā-rakhnā, 'to keep in a lying down state,' is also an exception.
14. The uninflected past participle (hū, $\bar{u}$ not admissible) sometimes gives the idea of continuance, as : Main is bojh se dabā-jātā hïn, 'I am being slowly crushed by this load;' Merā dil nā-ummedì se baiṭhā-jātā hai, 'my heart is sinking from despair.' Compare jānā in 4 and 8.
15. With another class of compounds $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ may be added, as-
To run (willingly). $\quad \operatorname{Daur} \bar{a}(h \bar{u}, \bar{a}) j \bar{a} n \bar{a}$.
To run (unwillingly).
Daurtā-jānā.
To go running (merely indicates state).
A $\operatorname{dog}$ is running (willingly) Ek admi ke pichhe ek kuttā after a man. daurā-jātā hai.

[^37]A man was chasing (un- Ek admī ek chhūte hū,e ghore willingly) a loose horse. ke pichhe daurt $\bar{a}-j \bar{a} t \bar{a}$ th $\bar{a}$.
To come running, to run Daur $\bar{a}-\bar{a} n \bar{a}$. towards one.
To remain stuck, remain $\operatorname{Lag} \bar{a}^{1}(h \bar{u}, \bar{a})$ rahn $\bar{a}$. engaged in.
To remain turned. Phirā (hī, $\bar{a})$ rahnā.
To remain open.
To remain in a fallen state. Gira $(h \bar{u}, \bar{a})$ rahn $\bar{a}$.
To remain sitting or seated. Baith $\bar{a}(h \bar{u}, \bar{a})$ rahn $\bar{a}$.
16. With some compounds either the present or the past participle can be used, with others not, as-
To remain sleeping, to sleep Soyā-rahnā or sotā-rahnā. on.
To flow on.

To remain safe, to be kept in Bach $\bar{\alpha}-r a h n \bar{a}$, butreserve, but-
To avoid or shun always.
Avoid sinning.
A hundred rupees is always kept in the chest in reserve.
To get at stated intervals.
Bahtā-rahnā (but not bahārahnā).

Bachtā-rahnā.
Gunāh se bachte-raho.
Khizāne men sau rūp $\bar{y} y a ~ b a c h \bar{a}-$ rahtā hai.
Miltā jānā or milā-jānā.

## L. THE PRESENT POTENTLAL (PLATTS), OR THE PRESENT DUBIOUS (HOLROYD)

1. Girtā ho, 'may be falling.' The Present Dubious is formed by substituting the Aorist of hon $\bar{a}$ for the substantive verb of the Present Indicative, as: Girtā ho, 'he may be falling.' This tense indicates doubt or the Subjunctive Mood, and is used only in dependent clauses. Sometimes

[^38]the Aorist can be substituted for it, but the former gives the idea of continuousness.

Remark.-The 1st person of the Aorist of honä (hün, ' I may be') is identical in form with the 1st person of the substantive verb (hïn, 'I am'), consequently girtä hün may be either Present or Present Dubious.
2. It is sometimes used instead of the 'Future Imperfect' of Platts, girtā hogā, 'will be or must be falling,' as: Shāyad wh is waqt khānā khātā ho or khātā hogā, 'perhaps he may be eating his dinner.'
3. It can also refer to past time as well as to present and future, as: Jis waqt tum wahān ga,e the, shāyad wuh sotā ho (or hogā), 'when you went there perhaps he was asleep, may have been sleeping.' The Imperfect Indicative is sometimes incorrectly substituted for it, but indicates more certainty, vide last example in 5.
4. For the Present Dubious after an indefinite antecedent vide VII, Relative Pronoun, 8.
5. Examples-
(1) Is there anyone here who Yahän ko,i hai jo Turki jāntā knows Turki?
(2) Scarcely a day passes without the post bringing two or three letters for me from friends.
(3) I am not your Mir Mahdi that I should be dying of love for Miran Sahib.
(4) He never stirred out of the house unless forced to do so. ho? (not jāne).
$K_{0, \bar{i}}$ din aisā nahin hotā ki doston ke do chär khatt na $\bar{a}$-rahte ${ }^{1}$ hon (not hain).

Main Mir Mahdi nahīn ki Miran Ṣăhib par martà hün (or mariun ${ }^{2}$ ).
Wuh hamesha ghar men raht $\bar{a}$ thà siwā,e is ke ki ko, $\bar{\imath}$ khāss zarürat us ko bāhir jāne par majbulr karti ho (or kare).

[^39](5) Though theseapes may not possess the gift of human speech, still they must be able to communicate their wants to each other by some means or other.
(6) He may be going to Paris, but I don't think so.
(7) I didn't find him at home; perhaps be was playing cricket in the maidan.
(8) Two hours ago there was a cool breeze; probably it was then raining, or it may have then been raining.

In bandaron men agarchi insān kī tarah bolne kī quvvat na-hotī ho ${ }^{1}$ lekin dil kī bāten ek dūsre par kisī na kisi t.tarah zarā̈r zähir karte honge.
Shāyad Pāris jātā ho lekin mujhe to qarina ${ }^{2}$ nahin.
Main ne us ko ghar men napāyā, shäyad wuh maidàn men us waqt kirkiṭkheltā ho. Do ghante hū,e țhandī hawā chaltī thī, ta'ajjub nahīn us waqt kahīn pānī barstā ho (or kahin pāñ̄̄ barastā thā ${ }^{3}$ ).

## LI. THE FUTURE IMPERFECT (PLATTS), OR THE PRESENT DUBIOUS, SECOND FORM (HOLROYD)

1. Girtā hogā, ' must be falling.' This tense has much the same force as the Present Dubious, but it can be used in the principal clause, as: Tumhārā bhā, $\bar{\imath}$ raste men āt $\bar{a}$ hogā (not ātā ho), 'your brother must be on his way here,' ' your brother must be coming along the road here,' but Ta'ajjub nahīn ki tumhārāa bhā, $\bar{\imath}$ raste men àtā ho (not àtā hogāa), ' your brother may be on his way here, may be coming along the road here;' Wuh is waqt sotā hogā, 'he must be now sleeping ; ' Shāyad ${ }^{4}$ wuh is waqt sotā ho.

[^40]2. Like the Present Dubious, with which it is in subordinate clauses interchangeable, it can be used for past, present, or future time ; vide Present Dubious, 3. It can also sometimes take the place of the Imperfect Indicative, as: Do ghunte hū,e thundi hawä chalti thī, shiyyad us waqt kahìn pāni barastā hogà (or ho) or barastā thà.

Remark.-After ta'ajjub nahin the tense should be barastā ho and not barastä hogä, but after shäyad it may be (1) barastā ho, or (2) barastā hogā, or (3) barastā thā. After shāyad, Nos. (1) and (2) are identical, and No. (3) expresses more certainty. If shāyad be omitted, the only tense that can be used with the same meaning is No. (2).
3. Examples-
(1) What sort of a man can he be that refuses to eat salt? (indef., no special man intended). But-
(2) What sort of a man is he (referring to a special man) who refuses to eat salt?
(3) I could not tell from his face that he was in the habit of deceiving people.

Wuh kaisā àdmì hogā jo namak nahin khätā ho? (or $h o g a \bar{a}$.

Wuh kaisā ādmi hai jo namak nahīn khātā hai?

Qiyäfe se uske yih iḥtimül nathā ki wuh fareb detā hogā (but wuh mujhe fareb degā, 'that he would deceive me').

## LII. THE PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS, SUBJUNC'TIVE (PLATTS) ; OR THE PAST CONDITIONAL, FIRST FORM (HOLROYD)

Girtā hotā, 'had he been falling.' This tense refers to time either past or present, but not future, and is often interchangeable with the Past Conditional, but with a slight change of meaning (vide XLIV)-

Had he drunk wine he would have given you some (or were he to drink wine he would give you some).
Had he been drinking wine he would have given you some (or he would have been giving you some).
Had he been selling (i.e. willing to sell) the horse he would certainly have informed me .
Were he to sell the horse he would certainly tell me (or had he sold the horse he would certainly have told me).
I ought to have thought, before borrowing, of how I could repay the loan.
My object would have been fulfilled (i.e. I would have thanked God) if instead of a daughter a son had been born to you (would have been born).

Agar wuh sharāb pīta to tum ko bhī pilātā.

Agar wuh sharāb pītā hotā to tum ko bhī pilātā (or pilātā $h o t \bar{a})$.

Agar wuh ghorā bechtā hotā to zarür mujhe khabar detā (not detā hotā).

Agar wuh ghorā becht $\bar{a}$ to zarūr mujhe khabar detā.

Qary lene ke pahle yih to ${ }^{1}$ sonchā hotā ki kahān se adā karūngā.
Merī murād to tabhī bar ātī ki jab tumhäre ghar men bețĩ ke badle bețā paidā hū, $\bar{a}$ hotā.

## LIII. THE PAST POTENTIAL (PLATTS), OR THE PAST DUBIOUS, FIRST FORM (HOLROYD)

1. Wuh gira $\bar{a} h o$, 'he may have fallen.' This tense is interchangeable with the Future Perfect of Platts, the Past Dubious, second form, of Holroyd ; i.e. with wuh girā hogā, 'he will or shall have fallen,' when it refers to past time.
[^41]It can only be used in dependent clauses, whereas the Future Perfect or Past Dubious, second form, can be used in principal clauses ; compare two forms of Present Dubious, L and LI.
2. Examples-

Perhaps he may have gone by Shāyad ${ }^{1}$ bhülke us raste se that road.
I should not wonder if ${ }^{2}$ he has deceived you.
What, have you not done this?
It is unlikely that you have not done this.
Amongst gentlemen the sending of little presents is the foundation of mutual liking, especially so when the parties bave held converse together, embraced each other, and read poetry together.

## LIV. THE FUTURE PERFECT (PLATTS). THE PAST DUBIOUS, SECOND FORM (HOLROYD)

1. Wuh girā hoy $\bar{a}$, 'he will or shall have fallen.' This tense can be used either in subordinate or in principal clauses, and refers to either past or future time. It is only when it refers to past time that it can, in dependent clauses, be substituted for the previous tense.
2. The Future Perfect in Hindustani always indicates a doubt. If there is no doubt in the case, the English Future Perfect will be rendered by the simple Future. Agle säl ke Disambar men meri shädì hü,e do mahine ho-ga,e honge,

[^42]' by December next year I shall have been married two months,' might be said by a man not married, but who was about to be married; if, however, he were already married he would say, Agle sāl ke Disambar men merī shād̄̄ hu,e do baras ho-jā,enge. Vide also XXXVII, 7, 8.
3. Examples-

I must have lost it.
My foot must have slipped. The boat must have reached by now.
By the breaking of such and such a bank many people musthavesufferedgreatloss. When you went there (lit. when you must have gone there) he must have risen to his feet on seeing you.
I shall be dead by the time you arrive.
By December next year I shall have been ${ }^{5}$ in this house ten years.

I strongly suspect that he also was mixed up with you in this dacoity.

Ham se gum ho-gayā hog $\bar{a}^{1}$ (or ham se kho-gayā hogā).
Merā panw phisal-gayā hogā. Ab tak jahāz wahān pahunch gayā hogā.
Fulāne 'bank' ghar ke diwāla nikalne se bahut logon $k \bar{a}^{2}$ nuqsān hū, $\bar{a} h o g \bar{a}{ }^{3}{ }^{3}$
Jab (or agar) tum wahān ga,e hoge ${ }^{4}$ wuh tumhen dekh-kar khara $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a} h \operatorname{hoga}$.

Jab tak tum à,oge main us waqt tak mar-gayā hüngā. Agle sāl ke Disambar men mujhe is ghar men rahte hū,e püre das säl ho$j \bar{a}$, enge ${ }^{5}$ (not ho-ga,e honge). Mujhe gumān-i ghälib hai ki wuh bh̄̄ is dāke men terā shāmil-i hāal hū, $\bar{a} h o g \bar{a}$ (or thā).
${ }^{1}$ Gum-jänā is Calcutta Hindustani.
${ }^{2} K \bar{a}$ more idiomatic than ko.
${ }^{3}$ Here $h \bar{u}, \bar{a} h o g \bar{a}$ and not $h o g \bar{a}$, as the speaker is stating a presumption.
${ }^{4}$ Here the Future Perfect indicates doubt about the going; if there were no doubt the Pluperfect would be used, as: Jab (or agar) tum wahän ga,e the wuh-.
${ }^{5}$ Simple Future in Hindustani and not Future Perfect, as the owner is already living in the house and the statement is a certainty ; vide 2.

He could not have gone five Pānch chha qadam na-gayā or six paces when-. hogā ki-.
Perhaps I (may) have for- Shāyad main bhiulä hīngã (or gotten(or-have forgotten).

## LV. THE PAST PERFECT, SUBJUNCTIVE (PLATTS). THE PAST CONDITIONAL, SECOND FORM (HOLROYD)

Agar wuh girā hotā, 'had he fallen.' This tense only refers to past time. With transitive verbs it requires $n e$. It is always interchangeable with the Past Conditional (girtã) when the latter refers to past time. Vide also Conditional Sentences, LVI.
Had he come in time I should Agar wuh waqt par āyā hotā not have been annoyed. (or ātā) to main nā-rāz na$h \bar{u}, \bar{a} h o t \bar{a}$ (or na-hotā).

## LVI. OPTATIVE, CONDITIONAL, CONCESSIONAL, AND ASYNDETIC SENTENCES

1. The tense girtā or kartā (called by Forbes and Holroyd the 'Indefinite' and by Platts and by Kempson the 'Past Conditional or Optative') may refer to time past, present, or future, but is rarely used for anything but past time; it is only used for a future when it is assumed the event will not take place.
2. Optative clauses are introduced by kāsh or kūshke, 'would that,' or by some such phrase as 'God grant that ' or 'how nice if --,' as : Küsh wuh mauijüd ho, 'I wish he were present,' or kēsh wuh maujūd hotā, 'I wish he had been present, or were present now.'
3. The prostasis, or if-clause, of conditional sentences is introduced by 'if' (jo or agar) or 'when' (jab), and the consequent proposition or main clause, the apodosis, is usually preceded by the correlative to.
4. Conditional sentences may conveniently be classed under three heads-(1) possible conditions, i.e. those that may be realized, or those that may have been realized; also those in which the prostasis only is hypothetical ; (2) impossible, or those that were not realized; (3) conditions in which the apodosis or if-clause is understood ; these belong partly to (1) and partly to (2).

Remark.-The 'if ' is sometimes idiomatically understood, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 29, e. Often the correlative to may also be omitted.
5. (a) First, No. (1) or possible conditions. In the prostasis usually the Aorist or Present Subjunctive, or the Future is used, or sometimes the Present, etc., Indicative, as : Agar tujhe apnī jān 'azīz hai to meri bāt sun, 'if you value your life (as of course you do), then listen to me;' Agar tujhe apnī jān 'azīz ho to wahān na-jä, 'if you value your life (as you don't), or were you to value your life, then don't go there;' Agar sunā chāhe to main apnī sar-guzasht bayān kamīn, 'if you wish, I will now, let me now, relate to you my adventures;' for karūn substitute karing $\bar{a}$, and the meaning is 'I will at some future time relate'; country people, however, use karüngā in both cases. After unmedwār hūn $k i-$, 'I hope that you will-,' it is usual to use the Future, as it is more polite than the Aorist ; vide example below.
(b) Sometimes the condition is assumed to have been realized, and in this case the Past or Preterite Tense is used, as: Agar (or jo) tum ne merā kahnä na-mänā to main tumhen sazā düngā, 'if you don't listen to what I say I'll punish you.'

Remark.-After jis waqt the Preterite can be similarly used in a future sense, but not after $j a b$ : Wuh jis waqt (not $j a b) \bar{a} y \bar{a}$ main usī waqt chalā-jā,ūngā, ' I will go as soon as he arrives.'
(c) In Agar bhül se qusiür hū, ā ho ummedwär hūn use mu'äf farmā,o (or, better, farmā,oge) the meaning is 'if I have by any chance committed a fault I hope you will pardon me'.
6. There are thus four ways of expressing a possille condition with shades of difference in meaning: 'It will be a terrible thing if there is a famine next year'-

| (1) |  |  | hogi |  |  |  | 交. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (3) | " | " | $h \bar{u}, \bar{i}$ | " |  |  | ogì |
| (4) |  |  | $h \bar{u}, \bar{i}$ |  |  |  | $\bar{u}_{1}, \bar{a}$ |

In (1) the doubtful ho indicates that the famine is not expected. In (2) the future hoyi is simply conditional and leaves the matter open. In (8) and (4) it is assumed that a famine will take place. In practice, however, these distinctions are often neglected.
7. Examples of 'possible' conditions, etc.-
(1) If you were to ask me I Sach puichhiye to kah-dïn ki would tell you plainly that 'uruh ahmaq hai.'.
he was a fool.
(2) If you want to be respected don't serve him.

Apmi 'izzat agar manzūr hai ${ }^{2}$ to us kĩ naukari na-karo (vide 8).
(3) When ${ }^{3}$ the horse arrives you must tell me.
(4) If you turn soldier what good will that do you?
(5) If my successor arrive even as late as to-morrow I could still start and reach in time.
$J a b^{3}$ ghorṑ à-jā,e to mujhe khabar deni chāhiye.
Agar sipähì hoge (or banoge) to kyā (hoyâ) ?
Merì badli kã âdmi (or 'ivoazi) agar kal tuk bhī $\bar{a}$-jàtā' (or $\left.\bar{a}-j \bar{u}, e^{4}\right)$ main chal-saktā aur waqt par pahunchtā (or pahunch-saktā).
${ }^{1}$ Direct narration after 'say'.
${ }^{2}$ Hai and not ho, as it is taken for granted that a man's 'izzul in dear to him.

3 'When,' jah, is often regarded as a conditional purticle.
${ }^{4} \dot{A}$-jüta implies that he cannot arrive, and $\tilde{u}$-ju, e that theve in hope of his coming.
(6) If sanction for my leave arrive as late even as the end of next month, I can, or could, still start in the 'Calcutta '.
(7) Were the village headman here (as he is not) he would certainly procure coolies (or had the lambardar been here he would certainly have procured coolies).
(8) I wish it may be so !
(9) God grant my brother will soon come to see me!
(10) God grant I may soon find my (lost) brother!
(11) I wish thou wouldst inquire what is the matter with me (said by a sighing lover).
(12) I wish he would come (or I wish he had come).
(13) I wish he had come.

Jo agle mahine ke ākilir tak bhī rukhssat kī manzūrī pahunchtī to main 'Kalkatta' nām kishtī par rawāna hosaktā.
Agar lambar-dār yahān hotā to z̧arūr qulī paidā kartā.

Kāsh yih bāt ho!
Khud̄a kare merā bhā, $\bar{\imath}$ jald mujh se mil-jā,e!
Khud̄a kare merā bhā,̄̄ jald mujhe mil-jā,e !
Kāsh püchho ki terā hā̄l kyā hai.
8. Conditional sentences in which the prostasis only is hypothetical present little difficulty. An Imperative may occur in the apodosis. The following examples should be studied:-
(1) If he is sleeping (as he probably is) don't wake him up.
(2) Should he happen to be sleeping (I don't know whether he is or not) don't wake him up.

Agar wuh sotā hai to (usko) na-jagā,o.
Agar wuh sotā ho to usko na$j a g \bar{a}, o$.
(8) If he wishes to come (as Agar wuh ànä chähtä hai to he probably does) let bim come.
(4) If he was desirous of going, why didn't you stop him?
(5) If I find him reading Agar wuh parhtā hogä ${ }^{1}$ to (when I get there; future main us se kuchh nutime) I won't speak with him.
(6) If he has committed this fault (as I think he has) I will punish him.
(7) If he has done this fault (an open question) I will punish him.
(8) If he had ${ }^{3}$ committed this fault why did you not punish him?
(9) If he did call you a fool what harm did he do ?
(10) If you order me I'll go ( $=\mathrm{I}$ am merely waiting for the order to start).
(11) If it is your order, well, I'll go.
(12) If I get the order (but I don't know whether I shall get it or not) I'll go.

Agar us ne yih qussùr ki!nā hai to use sazā düngā. ane $d$.

Agar wuh jànà chühleã thã to tum ne us ko kyinn na-rokia? bolūngā.

Agar us ne yih quşir kiyã hogā to use sazā düngā.

Agar us ne yih quş̧r kiyã tha ${ }^{2}$ to tum ne use sazā kyün na-dì?
Agar us ne tujhe be-wuquf kahã to kyã burã kiyja ?
Agar hukm ho main ja, än (or $\left.j \bar{a}, u n g a^{3}\right)$.

Agar luukm hai main jü,ùngā (not $j \bar{u}, \bar{u} n$ ).
Agar hulom hoga to main jā,üngā.

- Homit, simple comolition, leaves the matter open : ho eombld not be used, ats the aporlosis is futare (and mot Imprevative) : purtifit hon signities ' should he rembling now '.
${ }^{2}$ Here the ladetinite karti conld not be used, as the aporlasis is not hypothetical.
${ }^{3}$ Jí, ün!ri indiraten less readiness than jü, ïn.
(13) It would be better for Agar $\bar{a}, o$ to achchhā hai ${ }^{i}$ (or you to come.
(14) Warm a little water for me ( = if you warm some water for me), I'll bathe.
(15) Promise and then I'll go (= if you promise, I'll then go).
(16) If (or when) I find any mistake in the translation I correct it.
$h o g \bar{a})$.
Thora ā pānū garm karo to main nahā,ūn.
$W a^{\prime} d a \quad k a r o \quad j a b h \bar{\imath} \quad \operatorname{main}$ $j \bar{a}, \bar{u} n g \bar{a}$.

Agar (or jab) tarjame men main ko,ī ghalatī pātā hūn to us ko durust kar-detähīn.
9. As stated in 1 , the 'Indefinite' Tense may refer to any time: Agar āj ghorā wahān pahunchtā to kyā khūb hotā may mean either 'if the horse has already arrived there to-day ' ${ }^{2}$ or 'if it arrives to-day later on'; but Agar āj ghorā pahunche to kyā khāb ho, or hog $\bar{a}$, 'if the horse arrives to-day later on;' Agar main tumhari jagah hot $\bar{a}-$, 'if I were you or had I been you (as I am or was not).'
10. Precative or optative clauses can sometimes be expressed as conditional clauses and vice versa, as: $K_{y} \bar{a}$ lidh $\bar{u} b$ ho ki (or agar) barsāt shurū ho, or kyā khūb hotā ki (or agar) barsāt shurū hotī, 'how nice if the rains have commenced now;' but Kāsh barsāt shurü ho, or hotī, 'would that, if only, the rains would commence' (as they have not commenced, and it is not the time for them to commence).
11. In the second class, i.e. the impossible or unrealized conditions, the Indefinite Tense (girt $\bar{\alpha}$ ) or its two allied forms (girā hot $\bar{a}$ or girt $\bar{a}$ hotā, ' might have been falling') may be substituted; but while the first and third forms may refer to past or future time (vide XLIV and LII, 1), the second can refer only to past (vide LV).

[^43]Example.- ' It would have been well had he known this,' agar wuh is bāt ko jāntâ (or jāntā hotā, 'had he been knowing') to achchhā hotã, or agar us ne yih bāt jāni hoti to-.

Remark.-Girtā and girtã hotã are not always interchangeable: Agar wuh ghore ko bechtā-, 'had he sold the horse-,' but becht $\bar{a}$ hotā, 'had he been selling the horse.'

In the above example tha can be idiomatically substituted for hotā, but this peculiarity of tense is confined to the substantive verb.
12. For the past optative either of the first two may be used, as : Kāsh main wahān martà or marā hotā, 'would I had died there;' but martā hotā could not be used as it would signify ' had been in a dying state'.
13. The three forms of the Indefinite may also be used in the Optative, which, vide 10 , may sometimes be converted into a condition : Käsh wuh is bāt ko jāntà or jūntā hota, ${ }^{1}$ or kāsh us ne is bät ko jänā hotā.
14. Sometimes in the apodosis of a past condition the Pluperfect is used to give force, as: Agar main ne dawà na-pi-hotī to main mar-gayā thā (=mar gayā hotā $=$ mar. $j a ̄ t a ̄)$.
15. In the case of the substantive verb only, tha can be substituted for hotā in the prostasis of a condition; vide Examples (1) and (2) in 16.
16. Examples of 'impossible', i.e. unrealized, conditions-
(1) Had he come last week Agar wuh ga,e hafte àtã to it would have been well ; klhüb hotã (or thä). or
(2) Were he to come here Agar wuh àj yahän àtā to to-day it would be well. hihūb hotã (or thä), or -a,$e$ -ho.
(3) Had we lived within our means we would not have fallen on these evil days.

Agar ham apmī bisät ke muwäfiq chalte (or apne maqdṻr ke muwäfiq kharch karte) to yī̆ burā din dekhnā napartā.
Merā bas chaltā to us ko aisā karne na-detā. would not have allowed him to do so.
(5) I could have sunk into the earth from shame (lit. if the earth had opened I would gladly have been contained in it).
(6) He kept on saying, ${ }^{1}$ Wuh yih kaht $\bar{a}$-gayā (or 'Would God I had died for thee.'
(7) Had you, Sahib, not come to my assistance I was a dead man.

Agar zamīn phat-ga,ī hot̄ to main us men samā-jāt $\bar{a}$.
-rahā), 'Kāsh main tujh par fidā ho-jātā,'
Agar āp merī madad ko na-āte to us ne mujhe mār-dā̀ā thā ( $=$ màr ḍāltā).
17. Class 3 , in which the prostasis or if-clause is suppressed, is puzzling even to natives. Special attention must be paid to the sequence of tenses.
(1) I am so hungry that I Main aisā bhūk̄̄ hūn ki jau would prefer ${ }^{2}$ a single grain of corn to this pearl (said by a starving man that lights upon a pearl in the wilderness).
ke elk dāne ko ${ }^{3}$ is motī par tarjīh detā hün. ${ }^{\text {. }}$

[^44](2) A youth met us with Ek jauin aū jis ki culuz aisi a voice so sweet that he might have called down' the birds from the sky.
(8) Hell itself would be shocked at something I did.
(4) I would not give even one rupee for it.
(5) The faqir had nothing to offer (lit. that he should have offered it, or that he should offer it).
(6) I would risk my life to Main $\bar{q} p$ ki khiulmat-gfuEirī serve you.
18. (u) Concessional clauses are allied to conditional. Thuy are introduced by uyarchi, harchand, and yo or go-lit, 'although;' and mäa ${ }^{2} k i$, 'admitted that,' 'granterl:' or bä-wujūde-ki, ' notwithstanding,' 'albeit.' The correlatives are lekin, muggar, 'but;' and tau bhi, tē ham, ${ }^{3}$ and phir bhi, ' yet,' ' still,' ' nevertheless.'
(b) Hül-än-ki (or yü̆ ab, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Sitones'. Lesson 26, $d$ ), 'whereas' and 'though ', ' introduces at concessional clause generally when it follows the principal clause.
(c) For 'even though ' vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones ', Lesson 25, c.

[^45]19. Examples of concessional clauses-
(1) Although I reasoned with him, nay, even abused him, (still) he remained obstinate.
(2) Although you have disguised yourself as a faqir, still I recognize you.

Har chand main ne us ko bahut samjhāyā balki burā bhalā bhī kahā, (tau bhī) wuh apn $\bar{\imath}$ zidd se bāz na- $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$. Go ki (or bā-wujūde-ki) tum ne apne àp ko faqīron ke bhes (or libās) men rakhā hai (tā ham, etc.) main ne tum ko pahchān-liyā.
Mān-liyā ki dunyā chipṭī hai $t \bar{a} h a m-$.
Tum sharāb par marte ho hāl-ān-ki Istām men harām hai.

Mān ape bare bete par fidā hai.
20. A form of compound sentence that requires notice is the asyndetic. Urdu, being a dramatic language, naturally employs asyndeton.' The omission of the 'joints and hinges of language' gives to a sentence force and hurrying rapidity. Examples-
(1) Say 'sir' to others and J̄ kaho j̄̄$k a h l \bar{a}, o$ (proverb). 'sir' will be said to you (be respectful and you'll be treated with respect).
(2) Let alone seeing him, I have never even heard his name.

Main ne to us $k \bar{a}$ nām bhi na-sunā, dekhnā dar kinār (or dekhnā to ma'lūm) ; or dekhnä to dekhnā, main ne us $k \bar{a}$ nām bhī nahīn sunā.

[^46](8) What comparison can Kahän main, kahän tum? there be between us two ?
(4) I've no money; how can Rūpiya nahin; guzârā kisI get along?
(5) Take either. taraly ho?
Chāho ${ }^{1}$ yih lo chāho wuh.
Remark.-In the following there is merely an ellipsis of ' and ': Wuh äte jāte hain, ' they come and go;' Main ne khū̀b khāyã piyā, 'I eat and drink my fill;' Wiuh àyā jāyā $k i$, 'she was in the habit of coming to and fro.'

## LVII. COLLOCATION

1. Inversion and emphasis. In Hindustani the most emphatic place in a sentence is near the end. Main ne Zaid ko märà has no emphasis, but Zaid ko main ne mârā has and equals 'I killed Zaid; as for Zaid I killed him'. English people speaking Hindustani generally place the emphatic word in the wrong place.
2. The order of the words in the following should be carefully studied :-
(1) We two will soon be Han donon, qarib hai, ki captured. pakre jā,en.
Here the stress falls on qarib hai.
(2) As for my father, he died Mere wälid ne, muddat hū,i long ago.
(8) As for the Queen, she Malike ne pachās baras se ascended the throne more than fifty years ago.
(4) It is impossible that he should have escaped by this road.
(5) How can I tell how Kyā kahūn jo maza mujh ko much I enjoyed it? mild ?
[^47]The pleasure I enjoyed, Jo maza mujh ko mitā kyā how can I describe it?
(6) Where is his father?

Emphasis on $b \bar{a} p$.
(7) The child, the Raja's, Lark $\bar{a}, \operatorname{Ra} \bar{a} \bar{a} k \bar{a}$, mar-gat!y $\bar{u}$. has died.
(8) Such a rarity, even if Aisī chīz-i nädir hargiz mere my brothers traversed the bhā,iyon ko, go tamäm'ïlam whole world, could never be obtained by them.
bayān karūn?
Bāp uskā kahān hai? (men) phiren, muyassar nahogì.

Here the stress is on the concessional clause.
(9) His treatment, as regards Uskī, mere sāth, sulük achchhāa me , is good.
Stress on mere säth.
(10) Well has he treated me? Kyā ùs ne achchhā mere sāth sulük kiyā?
Stress on achchhā.
How well he has treated me! (lit. or ironical). No stress.
(11) That man is brave who keeps himself under control.
Brave is he who controls
Kyā achchhā us ne mere sāth sulūk kiyā. himself.
(12) There isa treasure buried underneath the tree beneath which you are standing. Ditto.

Wuh ādmī jawān mard hai jo apne dil ko qābū men rakihe. Jawān mard wuh hai-jo-.

Jis darakht ke niche tū kharā hai wahān ek dafīna hai.

Wuh darakht jis ke niche tīu kharā hai wahān ek dafina hai.
No difference in signification in the last two, but wahān in both is incorrect; omit wahān in the first. The second should be reconstructed, since if the incorrect wahan were omitted the sentence would then run apne nīche ek dafina
rakhta hai; but as derulibt is not a living being, this is unidionatic. ${ }^{\text {. }}$
(1:3) Of his being absent in Apmä, sair safar men maṣrif travel, he had written to me: so where could I have sont a reply to his letter? homī, likhā thä ; pas main uske lihat! kia jauilh kahan bhejtic? Apmi emphatic, asrees with massiff honä.
(14) Poor folk amongst whom there is no parda, their daughters - in - law and daughters ${ }^{2}$ work in the fields like men.
(15) As for mere writing, Likh to main bhì sukità hūn, I can write but not as beautifully as you.
(iharib culmi jin men parda kií ruucij nahin, un ki bahio. bețyän mardon ke barābar kheton men kām karti hain. magur tumhäri ! arah! lihushlihatt mahin.
(16) Vide example in XXXVI, 15 (13).
3. For the position of ne, vide agent case, III, 8 (e).
4. For remarks on $k 0$, vide cases of nouns, III, $5(j),(k),(l)$.
5. For relative construction, vide VII, 1, 2.
6. For position of niz and bhi, vide VIII, $14(a),(c),(f)$.
7. For the position of $k \bar{i}$, vile VIII, $15(d),(\rho),(f)$.
8. For the position of the negatives, vide VIII, $17(a),(b)$, (d), (g), (h), (i).
9. For position of interrogratises, vile next section.

## LVIII. INTERROGATIVES (DIRECT NARRATION)

1. It will he noticed that all the Hindi interrogatives legin with $k$. $L^{i}, i$ and lillihh, however, are also Hindi, lut are not interrogatives.
2. It is a general rule that the interrogative should not commence a sentence: thus, Tum kuun ho ? not Kaun tum

[^48]ho? If, however, the personal pronoun be omitted, the interrogative necessarily stands first, as Kaun ho?
3. Kahän, however, where it is idiomatically used to express dissimilarity, generally comes first to indicate an unusual use, as: Kahān Rāj $\bar{a}$ Bhojh, kahān Gangā tel̄? ? (proverb), 'what comparison is there between Raja Bhojh and Gangā the oilman?' Kahān main, kahān tum = 'there is no comparison between you and me'; but Phir main kahān tum kahān, 'God knows where we may be,' i.e. ' we may never meet again' (to a dying man or to a traveller just starting).
4. The particles kyā and $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$ that introduce an interrogative sentence, stand first in the sentence.
5. For an interrogative with a demonstrative pronoun, as a substitute for a relative, vide VI, 2 (b).

## LIX. 'WHETHER OR NOT', AND INDIRECT QUESTIONS

The $y \bar{a} n a h i \bar{n}$ or $k i$ nahinn, '-or not,' cannot always be omitted at the end of indirect questions. After püchhnā, kahn $\bar{a}$, and batān $\bar{a}$, however, these words may be omitted; but after other verbs they must be inserted, as: Pūchho ki wuh $\bar{a} j$ shām ko $\bar{a}, e g \bar{a}$ ( $y \bar{a}$ nahinn), 'ask him if (or whether) he will come this evening (or not).' In Mere dil men pas o pesh thä ki wahān jā,un yā nahīn, 'I was doubtful whether to go there or not,' the yā nahin could not be omitted.

## LX. APPOSITION

1. (a) Apposition is often a useful means of condensation. Ghälib, in his letters, uses apposition largely. Example: Būŗhā, apāhaj, pūrā bahrā, àdhā andhā, zindaḡ̀ se nālān, maut kā $k h h w a \bar{a} h \bar{a} n$, din rāt parà rahtā hūn, 'I, old, crippled, wholly deaf, half blind, complaining of life, longing for death, day and night lie on my helpless bed.'
(b) The following, however, from Ghälib is incorrect, as
a nominative (main) has to be understood at the beginning of the sentence and a dutive (mujh-ko) after bahrâ: P'ū,on se apühaj, kïnon se bahrī, zu'f-i basärut, ${ }^{1}$ zu'f-i dimägh, z̧u'f-i dil, ${ }^{2}$ zu'f-i midu, in sab zu'fon par zu'f-i tâlí-kyünkar qaṣl-i safar karün? ' 1 , maimed in my feet, deaf in my ears, weak of sight, weak of brain, weak of heart, weak of stomach (and, added to all these weaknesses, weak of Fate) -how can I think of undertaking a journey ?'
(c) If the sentence is so long that it is difficult to keep the thread of meaning unbroken, the subject or object, or some emphatic word, or a summary, may be repeated.

Us waqt mushk, mümiyā, $\overline{\text {, }}$, birbahūṭ, bhị, chamgādar, ghhudüd, in sab chizzon ko auzän-i maz̧küra-i bâlā ke ba-mû̀jib däkhil karo, 'then the musk, mummy, red-velvet insects, wasps, the bat, the saliva glands - add all these things according to their various weights given above.'

Is ke ba'd phir ittifāq aur istiqlāl kā̀ süth denã, ck koshish karne-wäle ki koshish se khändän kā phir turaqqi karnã, 'iskül' kā järi honā, 'ilm kīa sūth denā, is sab kuchh kā ck ittifāq kì ba-daulat honã, kyà ittifâq ki ta'lim nahîn detã ? 'this family's again becoming united and vigorous, it's rising again by the exertions of a single individual, it's starting a school, it's encouraging learning, all these things taking their rise out of one thing, viz. union : do they not teach one the lesson of union?'
2. Nouns of quantity and fractions are in apposition, as: Do ser düdh, 'two quarts of milk;' (ek) tihā,i ser düdh, ' a third of a quart of milk.' Fractions can all be expressed by the genitive as ser kiä tisrü hisssc düdh.
3. (a) A plural noun in apposition to proper names. If the plural noun precedes the proper names, it is preferably not inflected, as: Mere naukar (or naukaron) Zaid, 'Amr aur

[^49]Bakr ne merī ta'zim kī, 'my servants Zaid, 'Amr, and Bakr made reverence to me;' Mere naukar (or naukaron) Bahādur aur Dilāwar ko hukm do ki wuh hāzir hon, 'order my servants Bahādur and Dilāwar to come here.'
(b) If the noun follows the proper names, the words nām, ' name,' or nāmi, 'named,' must be introduced ${ }^{1}$ and the noun must be inflected, as: Gobind, Sundar, aur Ratan nām (or $n \bar{a} m \bar{\imath}$ ) qaidiyon ko riha $k a r o$, 'release the prisoners named Gobind, Sundar, and Ratan.'
4. Us ne mujhe betā karke pālā hai, 'he has brought me up as his son.'

Vide also III, $3(e),(f)$, and $5(j),(k),(l)$.

## LXI. REPETITION

1. To the numerous and varying examples of the force of repeating a word, given in 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 24, the following may be added: Agar wuh is khatt kā jawāb de to de, warna kihāli hāth wāpas $\bar{a}, 0$, 'if he gives a reply to this letter, well and good, otherwise come back empty-handed;' Yih bimān̄̄ aisī salht hai ki Khud̄̄ hī usko achchhā kare to kare, 'such a terrible disease is this that no one but God can make him well;' Main ne usko bulābheja hai; ab wuh $\bar{a}, e ~ \bar{a}, e, ~ n a-\bar{a}, e ~ n a-\bar{a}, e$, ' I have sent some one to call him, but I am not certain if he will come; ' or, 'if he comes he comes, if he doesn't he doesn't,' i.e. 'I don't care'.
2. The Conjunctive Participle repeated signifies continual, and the Present Participle continuous action ; vicle XLVI, 6, and XLVII, 8 (a), (b).

## LXII. ELLIPSIS, OMISSION, AND INSERTION

1. If two or more verbs, or participles with verbs, have the same object, the object should be stated but once; it should

[^50]not be repeated in the form of a pronom as in English : Polisu"ile Zaid ko giriftär karke lü,e, 'the police captured Zaid and brought (him) to the magistrate;' Main ne ek rüpiya jeh se nikiulkur Zuid ko de-diyā, 'I took a rupee out of my pocket and srave (it) to Zaid.' Similarly, Chor samajh-kar main Zuid ke pichhe duuri is better than Zaid ko chor samajh. kur umin uske pichhe daurci, 'mistaking Zaid for a thief I ran after (him), 'I mistook Zaid for a thief and gave chase.'

Vide also 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 19, c.
2. (a) To $\Omega$ great extent this rule holds good with the subject also, as: Jub Hiasan gir-para [wuh] rone laga, ' when Hasan fell he began to cry,' 'Hasan fell and began to cry; ' here wh must be omitted, otherwise it would refer to a second person. If, however, both subjects are the same pronoun, the pronoun may be repeated, but is preferably not so, as: Jab ưh gir-paṛä (wuh) rone lagū.
(b) If, however, one verb requires the agent case with ne, and the other does not, it is better to repeat the subject in the form of a pronoun, as: Chor ghar mon ayā aur usne mere rijpai churea-liye, ' the thief entered my honse and stole my money;' here, as the first verb requires a subject in the nominative and the second one in the agent case, it is better to insert us ne, though us ne might be omitted.
(c) If, however, the subjects of both verhs be pronouns it is better to omit the second, as: Wuh !/ahion dyã aur (usne) mujke güli di.
3. (a) When two or more verbs are in the Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect, the substantive verb need be mentioned only once, as: Main pahle kitäb purthtā (thai) tab khānā khätā thā, or Main puhle kitüb paṛhtä thä tab khünü khütā (thā); in such sentences the tha may be reqeated, but it is better to omit it.

Note.-In aftirmative and negative (but not interrogative) sentences the thit of the Imperfect can be omitted altogether, vide Imperfect Tense.
(b) Vide XXXV, 5, for the omission of the auxiliary in co-ordinate sentences.
(c) If the feminine plural thin or hain of the Imperfect or Present Tenses be omitted, a plural feminine $n$ must be added to the verb, as: Wuh àtin nahin, 'they (women) won't come;' here there is nothing to distinguish $\bar{a} t \bar{t} n$ from the Past Conditional. Panjabis, however, omit the $n$ from the Imperfect and Present, but add it to the Past Conditional.

Note the fallowing: Wuh larkiyān likhtī aur parhtī thīn; Wuh larkiyān ātī thīn aur apnī maze maze kī bāton se merā dil bahlātīn. Vide also XXXV, 5, and H.S.S., 9, d.
4. When one verb has two or more subjects, the subject is better repeated in the form of a numeral, or of $s a b$, 'all.' In Main aur merā betā donon wahān pahunche idiom and euphony require the insertion of donon, otherwise merā bet $\bar{\epsilon}$, an obvious singular in alif, would precede a plural verb. In Zaid 'Amr aur Bakr (tinon or sab) āye it is better to insert the tīnon or sab. But in Zaid 'Amr aur Bakr äye magar Khālid na- $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$ neither tīnon nor sab could be inserted, thongh yih tinon could : the reason is obvious.
5. For the insertion and omission of $n e$, se, and ko, vide III, 3 and 5.
6. For the insertion and omission of pronouns, vide Pronouns.

## LXIII. NARRATION

Tum se: this may refer to either the son, i.e. the addressee, or to the grandmother; if direct narration, to the latter, but

[^51]in this case $a p$ se would be expected. If it refers to the son, it would have been better to write wuh bät jo wälid ne mujh se kahi thi.
2. (a) Stories are often prefaced by the expression kahnewäle kahte hain ki-, or kahne-wälon ne yün kahā hai ki-, or simply by kahte hain ki-.
(b) Professional story - tellers and old-fashioned people generally commence a night story by: Sotä sansär jāgtū päk Parvardigār, kahänī aisī jhüṭ̄, bāt aisì anūthi, kahne-ùūlā jhüṭa, sunne-uàlà sachchā; kānon suni kahtā hün, änkhon dekhi nahin kahtā hin, 'the world is asleep, the Lord is awake; my story is false, but good; the story-teller is a liar, but the listener if he repeat the story will not be a liar; I narrate what I heard, not what I saw.'

## LXIV. 'HOWEVER,' 'WHATEVER,' AND 'ANY KIND '

1. Note the following difficult idioms. Refer also to 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 25.
(a) 'I can write on any kind of paper' = kaisâ hī kāghaz kyün na-ho, main us par khatt likh-saktā hün.
(b) 'However pretty a woman may be he won't even look at her'=kaisì hī khūb-sürat 'aurat kyinn na-ho (magar) wuh uskĩ taraf nazar uṭhäkar nahin dekhtã.
(c) 'Whatever his caste may be I don't want to engage him ' $=$ us kī zā̆t kuchh hi kyün na-ho, main usko naukar rakhnā nahīn chāhtā hün.
(d) 'I don't want to engage him, whatever sort of man he may be' $=$ wuh kaisā hì àdmì kyün na-ho, main usko naukar rakhnā nahīn chāhtā.

Note.-Kyün na-ho must always follow after kitnä ht, kaisä $h \boldsymbol{i}$, or kuchh $h \tau$.
2. An alternative for kais $\bar{\alpha} h \bar{\imath}$ - kyūn na-ho is khwwāh (or chāhe) kais $\bar{a} h \bar{\imath} h o$, as: Khwāh tum uske säth kitn $\bar{\imath} h \bar{\imath} b h a l \bar{a}, \bar{\imath}$ karo (or kyūn na-karo) lekin. wuh tumhāre sāth burā, $\bar{\imath}$ se pesh $\bar{a}, e g \bar{a}$.

## LXV. IDIOMS FOR TIME

Bārah par tīn baje = 'three o'clock'. This idiom can only be used when the hands of the clock make less than two right angles. Thus, bärah par pānch baje is correct for 'five o'clock', but bārah par chha baje is not correct.

## LXVI. WAYS OF EXPRESSING 'TO HAVE'

1. For the various ways of expressing 'to have', vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 10, h.
2. Note the following :-
(1) I have two children. Mere $[h \bar{a} n]$ do larke kain.
(2) I have two pupils.
(3) I have two slaves.
(4) I have two daughters.

Mere päs do larke hain. Mere pās do ghulām hain. Mere $[h \bar{a} n]$ do betiyān hain is better than
merī do bețiyān hain.

## LXVII. APPENDIX

Translate the following and then compare your translation with that given at the end:-
(1) If you ask me I should say he was a fool. (Direct narration.)
(2) Though in the possession of eyes you behaved like a blind person. (Use present participle for 'though'.)
(3) He chuckled aloud; laughed audibly. (Use conjunctive participle.)
(4) Whatever $I$ said he kept writing down.
(5) Until I got your letter from Rangoon (with your address) how could I write to you? (What tense after jab tak? What tense in the jazä?)
(6) I have no book fit to offer you.
(7) He had not sufficient sagacity to understand this hint. (Write ' where had he sufficient sagacity that he-?')
(8) Can you hear? (S'unä, ì denā.)
(9) There is a strong rumour that the Governor will come here ; well, let us see when he will come.
(10) I was afraid the gate might be shut. (Mujhe khauf thä $k i-$.)
(11) I was afraid he would not come.
(12) I was afraid he would come.
(13) I am glad you have come.
(14) I regret having come. (Direct narration.)
(15) Ask if this is true. (Not agar.)
(16) It is my custom to do this daily.
(17) I thought of doing so.
(18) He is coming from the opposite direction.
(19) I am fortunate in seeing you.
(20) I am at a loss how to act; I do not know how to act.
(21) I regret having given him leave. (Direct narration.)
(22) He said he was expecting you.
(23) They agreed to go together. (Direct narration.)
(24) I entreat you to forgive me. (Resp. Imper.)
(25) I wonder why he is so late.
(26) Thinking that it would be of no use to you I didn't give it to you. (Direct narration.)
(27) Everyone will be given whatever he wants. (Vide H.S.S., Lesson 27, j.)
(28) There is no such verse in the Quran as you describe.
(29) As soon as you came I left. (Infinitive and the 'aur of concomitance ${ }^{\text {'.) }}$
(30). I don't know who he is; but stay, I think I have seen him somewhere.
(31) Let alone drinking wine, I have never even seen any.
(32) Set aside threatening my boy, you are at liberty to beat him.

## Translation

(1) Agar mujh se pūchhiye to main to yih̄̄ kahūngā ki wuh ahmaq hai.
(2) Ānkhon ke hote (or änkhen hote) tum andhe ban-ga,e.
(8) Wuh khilkhilā-kar hans-parā.
(4) Jo main kahtā-gayā wuh likhtā-gayā.
(5) Jab tak $\bar{a} p k \bar{a}$ khatt Rangūn se na- $\bar{a}, e$ (not $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$, nor $\bar{a} t \bar{a})$ main àp ko kyūn-kar likh-saktā (or likht $\bar{a}$ )?
(6) Mere pās aisī ko,̄̄ kitāb nahīn hai jo qābil Ḥusūr ke ho (not hai).
(7) Us ko itn $\overline{\text { firāsat kahān thī } k i}$ is $\overline{\text { ina }}$ ko samajh-letā?
(8) Tum ko sunā, $\bar{\imath} \operatorname{deta} h a i ?$
(9) Ḥākim ke āne kī khabar garm hai, dekhiye kab ā,e? (or $\bar{a} t \bar{a} h a i$, but not $\bar{a}$, egā, vide XXXVI, 10).
(10) Mujhe khauf thā phātak band na-ho.
(11) Mujhe khauf thā ki aisā na-ho ki wuh na-ā,e (or -thā ki wuh na- $\bar{a}, e)$.
(12) Mujhe dar thā ki aisā na-ho ki wuh $\bar{a}-j \vec{a}, e$ (or -thā $k i$ wuh $\bar{a}-j \bar{a}, e)$.
(13) Main kehush hūn jo tum $\bar{a}, e(n o t \bar{a}, e ~ h o) . ~$
(14) Pachtātā hūn ki, 'Main kyūn āyā?'
(15) Pūchho ki (or āyā) yih sach hai yā nahīn.
(16) Merī yih 'ādat hai ki roz roz yih kartā hūn.
(17) Mere dil men khiyāl āyā ki aisā karün (not Future).
(18) Wuh udhar se (or sāmne se) $\bar{a}-r a h \bar{a} h a i$.
(19) Mere achchhe nașīb hain jo ${ }^{1} \bar{a} p$ ko dekh $\bar{a}$ (but - $\bar{a} p$ ko dekhtā hūn = 'I see you alive ').
(20) Hairān hūn ki kyā karūn.
${ }^{1}$ Better to omit main ne, vide LXII, 1-2.
(21) Sar pitne ki bät hai ki 'Main ne us ko kyūn rukhsat di ?'
(22) Āp kā nām leke kahā ki'Main un kā intizār kartā hün'.
(23) Wuh muttafiq hū,e ki 'Ham ek-sāth chalen'.
(24) Khudä ke liye merā quşiur mu'äf kijiye (or iltimàs kartā hūn ki-).
(25) Ta'ajjub hai ki 'Uske pahunchne men itni der kyūn lagi?'
(26) Main yih samajh-kar ki 'Yih tumhäre kis kām kā hai ?' tumhen na-di.
(27) Jis ko jo chīz matlṻb ho dī-jā,egī.
(28) Qur,ān men jo āp batāte hain aisi ko,ī āyat nahin hai.
(29) Tumhārā yahān ānā thä aur merā yahān se chalā-jānā.
(30) Main is ko nahīn pahchāntā hün magar hän khiyāl $\bar{a} t a ̄ ~ h a i ~ k i ~ i s ~ k o ~ k a h i ̄ n ~ d e k h a ̄ ~ h a i . ~$
(31) Sharāb kā pinā to kahān tak, main ne sharab kī shakl tak nahin dekhi.
(32) Mere larke ko dānṭā kyā, balki tum usko mār-sakte ${ }^{1}$ ho (or mār bhī sakte ho, or mar tak sakte ho).

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Säth denä properly requires ne.
    ${ }^{2}$ In old Urdu these four verbs never took ne.
    ${ }^{3}$ Main ne chähā, but merä dil chühü.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ دوركا a (properly two inseparable companions) is a woman's word.
    2, a woman's word for ${ }^{2}$, act.
    ${ }^{3}$ اوهى , ưhi, is a woman's exclamation.
     inviting the Jogin to a ' majlis').

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Hotī hain and not hain, vide H.S.S., 1, g.
    ${ }^{2}$ Note the position of tujhe in the second clause. It could follow $k i$ and be omitted in the second clause.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Vulgarly jūn, jyūn.
    ${ }^{2}$ Or agar.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ For this use of chaln $\overline{\boldsymbol{a}}$, vide $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{1}, c$.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ Speaking to a person $j \bar{j}, \bar{u} n g \bar{a}$ would be preferred ; but in writing $\bar{a}, \bar{u} n g \bar{a}$, as the person addressed is in his house.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Karūnya hi nahin in the Panjab. Similarly, for usi kä Panjabis say us kü $h \tau$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Future, karūngā to nahinn, etc. ; to cannot be inserted before the future suffix, as hi can.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ But kitne buje? (without hain), 'how many did the clock strike?' 'how many has it just struck?' would be said by a person who heard the clock strike but did not count. Kitne baje? is also an adverbial phrase, 'at what o'clock?'

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ But tumhārī hayāat kī du'ā kartā hūn, 'I pray for your life.'
    ${ }^{2} D u$ ' $\bar{a}$ denä, of men only; but 'God blessed him', Khudā ne us par fazl kiy $\bar{a}$. Du‘ $\bar{a}$ is calling down a blessing from Heaven. Du‘ $\bar{\alpha} p a r h n \bar{a}$ is to repeat a formula as a charm.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Delhi $j \bar{u} t \bar{u}$ signifies either boots or shoes, but in Behar jūta (m.) is a man's and jûū (f.) a woman's shoe.
    ${ }^{2}$ Tak in this sense is not a postposition, vide 'Hindustani Stepping Stones', Lesson 30, d.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ In affirmative sentences the auxiliary cannot be suppressed; kartin (affirmative) would be Indefinite Tense, ' would have done.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Hai here indicates certainty, whereas ho in the previous clause indicates doubt.
    ${ }^{3}$ Here the Present for the Future denotes certainty.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Aorist is not always used after shāyad, etc., as: Shāyad kahīn pāni barastā hai jo is waqt thandī hawä chat-rahī hai.
    ${ }^{2}$ In addressing a person the Aorist is more polite than the Future, as : Ummid $k i$ (or ummīdwär hūn ki) $\overline{a p}$ tashrīf lā,en. After ummed, hai is omitted.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ Aorist better than Preterite.
    ${ }^{2}$ If the apodosis is Future, the prostasis must be Future, as : Jab wuh $\bar{a}$, egā (not $\bar{a}, e$ ) main us ko khabar dūngā.
    ${ }^{3}$ Not karni, as the Infinitive used as an Imperative makes no change for gender.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1} \underline{Z}$ arā is here merely used for politeness : khã = khäkar.
    ${ }^{2}$ Hence Indians, wishing to speak civilly, frequently make the mistake in English of saying, 'I may go and get something to eat,' etc.
    ${ }^{3}$ Present for Indicative Future; but not khä-äte hain, vide Conj. Partic. 11. Here the Future would indicate a time too remote, and the Present is necessary.
    ${ }^{4}$ Here both the verbs could be in the Present Tense. Donon waqt = morning and evening.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or -ki kahin wuh mujhe märe nahin, or mär-na-baithe.

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ Not Future, vide XXXVI, 6 (d), and note.
    ${ }^{2}$ Häzir hona could not be substituted, as it is imperious.
    ${ }^{3}$ According to Platts, originally the plural of the form in iye.

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sighs are by Eastern poets compared to anything straight, to the letter alif, to a spear, etc.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ Süra-yi Bañ̄ Isrā, ū.
    ${ }^{2}$ Män may here be regarded as the logical subject of sikhäne.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ Chihil qadamì ( $k_{.}$) is a literary word for a 'stroll'.
    ${ }^{2}$ More idiomatic to omit tha in such sentences.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ Uz ko ma'lüm hai ki yahän haiza hai is liye kab àtā hai? 'he knows that there is cholera here, so he won't come.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Aorist or Present subjunctive for past time, vide XXXVI, 6 (b) : the Conditional or Past subjunctive ütū would signify that no letter had been received, whereas $\bar{a}, e$ indicutes that a letter giving the Rangoon address has been received.

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ In modern Persian, however, the Perfect would be used, unless the time especially referred to the day of marriage.

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Present Tense here would signify habitual action.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ayā hai if not expected, $\bar{a} y \bar{a}$ if expected.
    ${ }^{2} \bar{A} y \bar{a}$, as he was expected.
    ${ }^{3}$ But main unse na-mila, 'I purposely did not have an interview with him,' and wuh mujh se na-mile, 'he refused me an interview.'

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ Perfect, blindness not expected, and 'I am still blind'.
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{Kal}$ means 'to-day', as the previous tense is in the pluperfect.
    ${ }^{3}$ The Pluperfect indicates that it no longer remains.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ Compare the English sentence, 'Whoever does not pass an examination and [does not] learn typewriting . . .'

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ Misrelated participle. Wuth häth bandhä hūu, $\bar{a}$ lāyă gayā, 'he was brought bound.'

[^27]:    ${ }^{1} E k$ düsre ke ba'd muir-dülo, 'kill them one by one.'

[^28]:    ${ }^{3}$ Compare do bajte bajte, ' by the time it is 2 and not after that.'
    ${ }_{2}$ This might also mean 'as soon as he gave me the order he went away'. In mujhe hukm dete hī there is no ambiguity.

[^29]:    1 'Laughingly' and 'distractedly' are examples of participle adverbs in English.

[^30]:    1 'Aurat ne chalte kahā would mean 'aurat ne chalte hī kahā.
    ${ }^{2}$ Idiomatically, however, chalt $\bar{a} h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ means 'artful', 'cunning', and not ' moving'.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ Daurtā hai would signify daurā-phirtā hai, 'running hither and thither.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Domni also means a woman of the Dom tribe, an aboriginal Hindu tribe something like the gypsies. The Muslim Doms are singers.
    ${ }^{3}$ Note that with several participles, $h \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ or $h \bar{u}, e$, if added, is added to the last only. .
    ${ }^{4}$ If bandhte (hū,e) is used kisi ko is understood, hut with bandhte ( $h \bar{u}, e$ ) there is no omission.
    ${ }^{5}$ Mere sakte bhar appears to be obsolete or local.

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mere $\bar{a}, e h \bar{u}, e$, though sometimes used, is incorrect.
    ${ }^{2}$ Dastar-khwan in Urdu is an ordinary tablecloth, but in Persian sufra is an ordinary tablecloth.
    ${ }^{3}$ After änkhon, $k \bar{\imath}$ or $s e$ is understood. Ankhon, dekhne-wāle $k \vec{a}$ bayān, 'the report of an eye-witness ;' Ankhon dekhī bhat pare, main ne kānon sunĩ thī, 'eye-witness be d-d, I've heard it' (said of a credulous man).
    ${ }^{4}$ For compound verbs of this description vide XLIX, 7.
    ${ }^{5}$ Or hathlcariyān.
    ${ }^{6}$ Causal, 'having been made to wear.'

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or samjhe $h \bar{u}, \bar{u}$, as samajhue is both transitive and intransitive. If hü,e were here omitted, the verb would be identical in form with the obsolete form of the Imperfect. Formerly the Aorist was identical with the Present; then the Present was formed by adding hai, etc., to the Aorist, and the Imperfect by adding thei, etc.
    ${ }^{2}$ Samujhea the would refer to a particular time.
    ${ }^{3}$ The word khüna is understood.
    ${ }^{4}$ In the first example se, if inserted, indicates the point of time from which the rain started and continued, but in the second example se connot be used: compare do baje se pini barasne lagai and do baje main apme safar par raurina hū, ī.

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sunā, p.p. of sunnā.
    ${ }^{2} H \bar{u}, e$ can be added to the past participle of either transitive or intransitive verbs when be or ba-ghair precedes the participle.
    ${ }^{3}$ Most of these compounds are not used at all in Bengal, and their use is perhaps confined to Hindustan, i.e. the United Provinces.

[^35]:    ${ }^{1}$ This compound is common everywhere.

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ Rakhe is not here inflected as a plural to agree with tum, as it would be in the case of an intransitive verb: tum so,e raho, pl., 'sleep on;' tū soyä rah, sing.

[^37]:    ${ }^{1}$ In daurā-ānā , vide 5 , annū gives the idea not of state but of coming.

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ Lagä-rakhnā, 'employ in now,' 'to keep applied to beforehand,' is for lagā-kar-rakhnā. Wuh har waqt bāton men lagā-rahtā hai, 'he is always talking.'

[^39]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or à-jäte hon, not continuous, which would be âte rahte hon.
    : Or marün, 'that I should die.'

[^40]:    ${ }^{1}$ Here hotī ho is better than $h o$, as it indicates a general truth, vide H.S.S., l, $g$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Qarina, ' likelihood, context ; symmetry, order;' qarine se baitho, 'sit up,' 'sit properly' (to a lounging schoolboy).
    ${ }^{3}$ The use of the Imperfect here is colloquial and not quite correct ; vide Future Imperfect, LI, 2, Remark.
    ${ }^{4}$ Shāyad = mumkin haiki- and therefore corresponds to a principal clause.

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ Main ne understood after to.

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ Vide n. 4 to 1, Future Imperfect, LI.
    ${ }^{2}$ Ki and not ager, as there is no condition.

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Present Tense, to indicate certainty ; it is often so used for the Future.
    ${ }^{2}$ And it is not expected to arrive, vide 1; in colloquial, however, this distinction is often neglected.

[^44]:    ${ }^{1}$ Raṭnä or rat-lagān $\bar{a}$ is an idiom for 'to keep on saying the same thing'; Us kī rat se merā dimāgh phir-gay $\bar{a}$, 'I'm quite giddy from his ceaseless repetition.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Some such phrase as 'if I had the choice' is understood.
    ${ }^{3}$ Note the ko; always kisī chīz ko-par tarjīh denā.
    ${ }^{4}$ Here the Present Tense hün is necessary after 'I am so hungry that-?

[^45]:    1 'Had he tried,' or 'had he sung', understood.
    ${ }^{3}$ From minuri, main ue understood.
    ${ }^{3}$ Tai ham is Hindustani only, and is not understood hy Persiana; it is apparently a Persian traslation of teu hhi.

    4 Ilil-an-ki is an alversative as well as a concestional conjumetion.

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ Asyndeton is a figure of speech (a figure of syntax) by which connectives are omitted. Macaulay's style is habitually asyndetic.

[^47]:    ${ }^{1}$ Chuiho can only be used for 'either-or-' with the 2nd pers. pl.; chuike-chühe and $k y \bar{a}-k y i \bar{u}$, etc., can be used unrestrictedly.

[^48]:    ${ }^{1}$ In old Craln, however, such sentences do occur.
    : These being the yonnger fomate members of the family, the perver rule should especially apply to them.

[^49]:    ${ }^{1}$ This should be zreifu'l-basr, etc., adjectives instend of nouns, which require the dative mulhe.
    ${ }^{2}$ i.e. getting upset at the least thing.

[^50]:    ${ }^{1}$ If there were only one name mentioned, the word $n \bar{a} m$ or $n \bar{a} m \bar{u}$ might be omitted ; in colloquial language preferably so.

[^51]:    ${ }^{1}$ Main ne, i.e. the writer Ghälib, who is writing to his son.

[^52]:    ${ }^{1}$ For human beings märna usually means 'to beat', and not 'to kill', but for animals with or without ko it usually means ' to kill', but the context makes the meaning clear: Is khatmal ko maro obviously could not mean 'beat this bug', and Is billi ko märo (unless the addressee had a gun) would naturally mean 'beat or drive away this cat'. In Larä,i men main ne dushman he do afoar märe obviously the meaning is 'killed'.

